

# **MeV Kr ION INDUCED MIXING IN Si-Ge MULTILAYERS**

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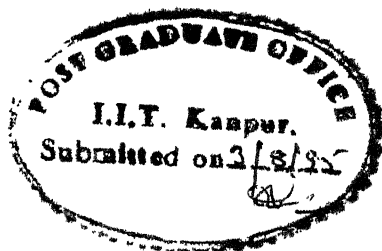


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## A B S T R A C T

The Si-Ge system is important due to its potential application in optoelectronic and photonic technology. Ion beam mixing can provide a powerful method for synthesizing Si-Ge alloy of desired composition on a preselected region of the sample at considerably lower temperatures as compared to the conventional methods. The efficacy of the ion beam mixing of this system was not evaluated in detail. Bearing in mind the advantages of multilayers in the synthesis of alloys of variable/predetermined composition, Si and Ge films were deposited alternately on a quartz substrate using an electron gun to evaporate the elements in high vacuum. TRIM calculations were carried out to determine the range and energy deposition, distribution of 1 MeV Kr ions in Si-Ge. The total multilayer thickness of the samples was selected from these calculations such that most of the ions pass through the multilayer, yet deposit a significant part of their energy in it. The number of films varied between 6-10 layers. The thickness of the individual films were between 250 to 350 Å.

Ion mixing experiments were performed using Krypton ions of energy 1.0 MeV. The irradiation dose was varied between  $8 \times 10^{15}$  to  $5 \times 10^{16}$  at/cm<sup>2</sup>. The irradiation was carried out for different temperatures up to 300°C. The samples were characterized using RBS, XRD, Transmission Spectroscopy and four probe measurements.

Detailed simulation analysis of the RBS spectra was carried out to extract information about the mixing and the variation in composition as a result of irradiation.

The RBS analysis shows that there is definitely a mixing at room temperature which is expected from the TRIM calculations. Mixing has occurred at all the interfaces for high doses at room temperature. The mixing observed enhances significantly with the increase in temperature with the thickness of the mixed region showing a steep rise from room temperature to 200°C. However a further increase in temperature to 250°C shows no significant change in mixing. Moreover, at a temperature of 300°C the mixing reduces and appears almost equivalent to room temperature mixing. The increase in mixing at 200°C is because of Radiation Enhanced Diffusion as the critical temperature of the system is around 200°C. The fall in mixing at 300°C could be because of strain relaxation and highly disordered nature of the mixed layer. Investigation into such retarding mechanism is required.

The optical characterization was undertaken to find the band gap of the material. However, as the films are amorphous in nature even after annealing, the band gap obtained was ~ 0.8 eV for all the samples irrespective of irradiating conditions. This is because of tail end mixing in the amorphous semiconductors.

A low temperature heat treatment ( 620°C for 15 minutes in flowing dry nitrogen) is enough to improve the conductivity indicating the removal of ion induced damages. The increase in resistivity with dose implies that the damage has not been fully recovered. The decrease in resistivity with rise in substrate temperature during irradiation shows the possibility of in situ annealing of the defects produced during ion irradiation.

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# CHAPTER 1

## INTRODUCTION

### 1.1 Surface Modification by Ion Processes

Ion Implantation and Ion Beam Mixing provide unique ways to change the surface and near surface region of materials. The earliest use of an ion beam from a low energy accelerator to modify material properties was initiated in the early sixties in the form of doping of semiconductors by ion implantation instead of traditional thermal methods. It has now been adapted for modifying the properties of metals, ceramics and polymers. In the semiconductor industry it has been used to introduce a wide range of dopants with no masking complications, to produce buried layers, abrupt junctions, and precision alignment. Reproducibility from wafer to wafer, low processing temperatures and high degree of localization makes ion beams an important tool in the semiconductor industry.

Ion implantation is the introduction of one or more atomic species into the surface of the substrate material using energetic ion beams. This results in modified physical and chemical properties of the near surface region. The projectile incident on the target suffers a series of discrete collision events by which it slows down and transfers energy to the substrate [1].

Ion beam mixing, introduced in the early seventies, involves the use of ion beams to intermix or surface alloy a predeposited thin film with an underlying substrate or thin film [2]. Ion beam mixing is being explored for the past several years as an alternative to direct

high dose implantation [3].

An interesting aspect of ion implantation is that it produces new solid phases. The possibility to produce equilibrium as well as non-equilibrium (metastable) surface alloys without heating the material represents an important advantage of ion implantation. In addition, high defect concentration produced in the collision cascades modifies considerably the diffusion coefficients and the thermodynamic limitations connected with the solid solubility can be surpassed and metastable alloys can be produced, in the form of either single phase solid solution or amorphous alloy. However, in terms of forming various alloy phases, the maximum obtainable composition by ion implantation is limited by the sputtering effect of the impinging ions as they lose their energy to the nuclei (atoms) in the near surface region of the material. Moreover, it would be even impossible to study various systems if the implanter available is not equipped with several versatile ion sources. In such cases ion beam mixing is suitable. In contrast to direct implantation, the ion beam used for ion beam mixing is typically an inert gas. It is used mainly to trigger atomic collisions for inducing intermixing between deposited material A and matrix B or A and B bilayer or multilayer on a substrate and thus forming an A-B alloy phase.

implantation for the formation of alloy phases [4].

Method	Effect of irradiation	Typical dose and obtainable alloy composition
Ion Mixing	Physical Mixing	$10^{15}$ to $10^{16}$ ions/cm <sup>2</sup> No limitation on composition
Ion Implantation	Introducing alloy element	$10^{17}$ to $10^{18}$ ions/cm <sup>2</sup> Sputtering effect limits the maximum composition to around 30%

## 1.2 Sample Configurations in IBM

Experimental investigation in the field of ion beam mixing have been executed with three main sample configurations :

- (i) Bilayered samples where a thin film A is deposited on a substrate B
- (ii) Thin marker samples in which an extremely thin layer (~1nm) of a marker element A is embedded in a matrix B
- (iii) Multilayered samples in which the sample consists of a multiple sequence of very thin alternating films of two elements A and B on an inert substrate such as SiO<sub>2</sub>.

Bilayer samples have been used primarily to investigate ion mixing of metal films on Si substrates. We have studied ion mixing in Si-Ge i.e. semiconductor-semiconductor system as well. The unique feature of bilayer configuration is that at early stages of ion irradiation, the supply of both materials A and B at the interface is constrained only by the process of ion mixing itself so that the

system is free to seek possible preferred compositions for the mixed region.

Very thin marker layer samples are used to investigate the basic aspects in ion mixing processes due to much simpler experimental conditions of a dilute impurity in an otherwise homogeneous host matrix.

Multilayered samples have been used primarily in metal-metal systems. Interest in this area has been spurred by the recognition that, through the use of ion mixing, metallic metastable, crystalline and amorphous phases can be formed quite readily. Multilayered structure is more convenient for producing alloys of desirable composition than bilayer because the composition is forced to a predetermined value which can be varied easily in a wide range by only adjusting the relative thickness of the individual layers. In these samples the average composition of the whole layer is fixed by the relative thickness of the respective layers of the constituents. For this reason these experiments are sometimes described as being performed in a limited supply configuration.

### **1.3 Demonstrated application of Ion Beam Mixing**

Ion beam mixing is a technique for the modification of surface sensitive properties. The potential application of ion mixing depends on the different media that a solid surface can form an interface with ,eg. vacuum, plasma, gas, liquid, solid. For example the vacuum-solid interface can be altered by ion beam mixing to form a thin micro alloyed surface that has a lower vapor pressure than the bulk material, thus stabilizing it in vacuum. Optical properties and

work function can also be altered in a similar way of alloy formation, since these properties depend on the near surface parameter. In integrated circuit technology, the patterning of material could be envisaged by locally altering the surface to achieve selectivity in subsequent reactive ion etching processing. In case of solid-solid interface, changes in wear, friction, corrosion, adhesion etc. has been studied [6]. Other horizons for the application of ion beam mixing are the modification of electrical properties, the formation of metastable films of unique super conducting [7] and magnetic [8] properties. The potential benefits of surface ennoblement by ion beam mixing are so broad that the study of the properties of mixed layers is amply justified.

#### 1.4 The Mechanism of Mixing

A great deal of effort has been expended in studying ion induced phase formation, including metastable and amorphous phases for various couples as a function of implantation temperature and ion fluence. Paine and Averback [9] reviewed the status of these ion beam mixing experiments of simple layered systems. These experiments have either utilized a bilayer or a thin marker layer in combination with Rutherford Backscattering (RBS) spectrometry to study the diffusion mechanism occurring during intermixing. The energy broadening of the RBS spectral peaks is a measure of the inter diffusion between the layers. The use of bilayer is most common as any binary composition can be attained during intermixing in this geometry.

During the initial impact period of implanted ions (less than  $10^{-14}$  sec), molecular dynamic motion has been used [10] to



describe atomic motion. Different atomic transport mechanisms are operative following ion penetration. For times within the first  $10^{-13}$  sec, collisional events prevail with atomic displacements well described by two body collisions [11]. During this period only a fraction of events will be of high energy (KeV) recoil displacements with the majority of displacements being in the multi-electronvolt regime. Hence substrate temperature is not important in this regime.

Following this displacement phase (up to  $10^{-11}$  sec) the atomic motion is thermalized. Johnson et al. [12] have shown that for dense cascades in this time scale it is possible to predict, by thermodynamical considerations, which metallurgical phases can be expected to form and the criteria for the formation of amorphous phase during intermixing. For longer time periods ( $10^{-11}$  sec) atomic motion occurs by thermal diffusion of irradiation produced defects, ie. radiation enhanced diffusion. The depth scale associated with radiation enhanced diffusion is often several times the range of the initial ion.

Liu et al. postulated [13] a structural difference rule stating conditions for producing amorphous alloy films. These include

- (i) The constituent layers have different structure
- (ii) The composition after uniform mixing lies within the two phase region of the equilibrium phase diagram.

Therefore, in most situations, ion beam mixing can be attributed to one of several mechanisms :

- (i) enhanced diffusion due to mobile defects such as vacancies and interstitials generated by the incoming ions.
- (ii) Cascade mixing or repeated displacement of atoms in the

solid by successive collisions.

(iii) Mixing by energy spikes [56].

The mechanism of thermally assisted ion induced interface mixing evolves by the exchange of atoms at the interface of solids A and B resulting in a new inter atomic phase AB sandwiched between the elemental layers A and B[55]. The interface mixing now occurs between A and AB and/or between AB and B. The exchange of atoms at the interface between A and AB, for example, induces deficiency of B atoms in the compound AB phase near the A-AB interface. The deviations from the stoichiometry near A-AB interface is recovered by the diffusion of B atoms in the AB layer.

### **1.5 Ion Beams in Semiconductors and the Si-Ge Alloy System**

Ion induced compositional disordering in semiconductor superlattice structures at moderately elevated temperatures have been found to facilitate the fabrication of photonic devices, planar lasers, wave guides and modulators [14,15]. This was the first time that ion mixing had demonstrated its technological usefulness. Most disordering schemes reported to date require high temperature annealing to promote compositional mixing in superlattices [16,17,18]. Such a high temperature process tends to restrict device fabrication because of the decomposition of the structures and possible reaction between metal mask and the substrates during annealing. The initial technological driving force was to form deep conducting layers in Si [24] and this application stimulated keen interest specifically in studying damage production by MeV ions and its removal by thermal

annealing [25,26], particularly in comparison with near-surface disorder produced in the more usual KeV range. At this time it was also realized that heavy MeV ion irradiation offered considerable control over energy deposition distribution and defect formation over large depths. These attributes were used to advantage for inducing epitaxial growth at low temperature [27,28] and as a means for studying solid phase epitaxial growth [29] and defect enhanced diffusion [30]. Technologically, MeV ion beams are used in specific Si processing steps [31], for isolating III-V devices [32], for disordering superlattices, forming optical wave guides and cavities [34] and improving electrical activation of deeply doped layers [31]. Topics of more fundamental solid state physics have been pursued. These include studies of ion beam induced amorphization [35], crystallization [36]. MeV ions have also afforded the production of novel amorphous-crystalline materials [37].

Band gap engineering involving group IV semiconductor alloys has been the focus of recent research because of potential applications in modern electronics [20]. Ion beam mixing at moderately elevated temperatures may be useful in eliminating the high temperature step involved in annealing for compositional disordering. In recent years much interest has been focused on the Si-Ge alloys for use in high performance heterojunction bipolar transistor (HBT). These transistors have been fabricated using ultra high vacuum chemical vapor deposition (UHV-CVD) and molecular beam epitaxy (MBE) for the epitaxially grown SiGe layer and have promising device characteristics [19].

In accordance with the Hume-Rothery rule [39] Si and Ge form

a completely miscible solid solution across the entire compositional range [40]. The band gap of the Si-Ge system varies to give a wavelength range of  $1.3\mu\text{m}$  to  $1.5\mu\text{m}$ , making it suitable for fiber optical communication application. Multilayered films of a-Si and a-Ge have been made in the early eighties [41]. Interdiffusion in Si\Ge amorphous multilayer films [42] and thermally activated diffusion studies have also been carried out. Theoretical studies [43,44] have revealed the possible application of  $\text{Si}_x\text{Ge}_{1-x}$  alloys in integrated wave guides [45], high speed  $1.3\mu\text{m}$  detectors [46]. Photoluminescence in Si-Ge superstructures [47] indicate the presence of quasi-direct band gaps, important for optical applications.

Matteson et al. [48] and Paine et al. [49] have studied the IBM of thin germanium markers in amorphous Si as a function of irradiation temperature. Liu et al. [50] have carried out compositional disordering and mixing in Si-Ge layered structure. Si-Ge layered structures have also been studied to investigate the kinetics of mixing using marker layers in amorphous silicon [51]. Chaudhari [52] has carried out mixing of this system at room temperature for various configurations and found definite evidence of mixing. Ramakrishnan [53] has studied the temperature dependence of mixing efficiency in Si-Ge bilayer structure, showing the existence of a thermal and an athermal region.

Keeping in mind the advantages of multilayers described earlier in this chapter we have undertaken the the study of ion beam mixing of Si-Ge multilayer structure in an effort to synthesize  $\text{Si}_x\text{Ge}_{1-x}$  alloys at temperatures much less than the conventional methods of thermal diffusion and to characterize them, both optically and electrically.

further, bilayer configuration both at room and high temperatures have been studied in detail [52,53]. This facilitates the comparison between the two configurations giving us a complete picture of this system.

Silicon and Germanium films in the thickness range of 250-350 Å<sup>0</sup> were deposited sequentially on clean quartz substrate without any break in vacuum, forming multilayered structure with 6 to 10 films. Ion mixing experiments have been performed using 1 MeV Kr<sup>+</sup> ions, doses (3-10) × 10<sup>15</sup> atoms/cm<sup>2</sup> using the 2 MeV Van de Graaff facility [54] at temperatures ranging from 25<sup>0</sup>C to 300<sup>0</sup>C. The samples were characterized using 1.3 MeV He<sup>+</sup> for Rutherford Backscattering (RBS) Spectrometry.

Chapter 2 has the experimental details including sample preparation, ion beam mixing, characterization and the software packages used in simulations. The results and their analysis and discussion are presented in Chapter 3. Finally, the salient features and conclusions are stated in Chapter 4.

## C H P T E R 2

### EXPERIMENTAL DETAILS

#### General

This chapter outlines the experimental arrangements made and procedures carried out during the course of investigation. The essential details of sample preparation and characterization have been discussed here.

#### 2.1 Sample design

The use of multilayered films in ion beam mixing is capable of producing alloy phases of desired composition. Fig 2.1. schematically shows the concept and arrangement of Ion Mixing using multilayered films.

The relative thickness of the layers are calculated using their atomic density. The thickness of the layers was decided on the basis of the energy resolution of the Rutherford backscattering set-up for 1.0 MeV to 1.4 MeV  $\text{He}^+$  beam. The sample design was thus based on the calculations made with the help of the simulation software TRIM and RUMP. The details of these software packages are mentioned later in this chapter.

The RUMP calculations estimated the minimum thickness required for the resolution for characterizing the sample with ion beams with energy ranging from 1.2 to 1.4 MeV. From the TRIM calculations the range of  $\text{Kr}^+$  1 MeV ion beam in SiGe alloy and the energy deposited by the incident projectiles to the target atoms was

obtained. The total thickness of the multilayered structures for the ion beam experiments was selected on the basis of these calculated parameters in order to optimize the mixing. The parameters obtained are tabulated below.

Table 2.1 Estimated sample configuration for  $\text{Si}_{.5}\text{Ge}_{.5}$  alloy

Thickness of each Si and Ge layer:	200 - 300 $\text{\AA}$
Total thickness of the multilayered structure	:3000 - 4000 $\text{\AA}$

The substrate used was  $\text{SiO}_2$  for all the samples. This choice not only provided a transparent substrate for optical characterization but also it being an insulator helped in the electrical characterization by four probe method.

## 2.2 Transport and range of ions in matter (TRIM)

The theoretical calculations of krypton ion ranges and damage was performed using TRIM computer package developed by Ziegler et al. [57]. The nuclear energy deposited by the projectile ions to the target (Si-Ge multilayers) was calculated using this program. The program input consists of ion mass and energy, the details of the layer structure, the displacement energy of the lattice atoms ( $E_d$ ) and the binding energy ( $E_b$ ). The details are given in the the book by Ziegler [57]. If  $Z_1$  and  $E_1$  are the atomic number and the energy of the incident ion,  $Z_2$  is the atomic number and  $E_2$  the energy acquired by the target atom after a collision event with the incident ion, the following can be the consequences under different conditions:

Condition	Consequence
$E_1 > E_d, E_2 > E_d$	A vacancy results
$E_1 < E_d, E_2 > E_d$	$E_2$ is released in the form of phonons
$E_1 < E_d, E_2 > E_d$	Original atom remains at the site. The event is called a Replacement Collision
$Z_1 \neq Z_2$	$Z_1$ becomes an anti site atom
$Z_1 = Z_2$	$Z_2$ merely replaces $Z_1$ in the cascade and $E_1$ is released as phonons
$E_1 < E_d, E_2 < E_d$	$Z_1$ becomes an interstitial and $E_1 + E_2$ is released as phonons

The TRIM program has the provision of performing calculations for a maximum of 3 layered structure only. Therefore for a 10 layered sample like mine TRIM calculations are made by considering the overall composition of the structure so formed. Calculations were made by two methods. One was to give the relative composition of the elements as obtained from the multilayered structure in a single homogeneous layer of thickness of the total multilayer structure. The other method was to give an energy input to the first three layers followed by the next three layers for which the input was the average energy of the transmitted ions. Repeated calculations for various configurations ie. 3+3+2+2 layers, 2+3+2+3 layers etc. were compared. The transmitted ion energy fluctuated by around 5%. The value of the energy deposited in the layered structure when compared to the energy deposited in the homogeneous layer of appropriate composition was found to be approximately identical at 110 eV/ion/angstrom (Fig 2.2a). The range of the krypton ions is shown in figure 2.2b. This gave the range and final



istribution of the Krypton ions. During irradiation the energy of the ion beam fluctuated by around 10%. So the values calculated thereof are accurate to only within 10%.

### 3 Sample Preparation

Fused quartz was used as substrate for thin film deposition. The quartz was cut into pieces of size 10mm x 7mm each for Kr irradiations. They were cleaned using organic solvents such as TCE followed by a thorough rinse in acetone. The thin film deposition was carried out using an electron beam evaporation unit. Thermionic electrons from a tungsten filament are bent using a permanent magnet and a high negative voltage to focus the electron beam onto graphite crucibles containing the material to be evaporated. These crucibles were mounted on a copper block to conduct away the heat rapidly. The advantages of e-beam evaporation over thermal evaporation are accurate control of the rate of deposition, no requirement to measure the mass of the material to be evaporated, better control over the deposited thickness and the ability to perform a number of evaporations of different materials without a break in vacuum. This is made possible by the use of rotating crucibles. The rate of deposition and therefore the thickness can be controlled by the current passing through the tungsten filament emitting thermionic electrons. Si and Ge films were alternately deposited onto a clean quartz substrate in a vacuum of the order of  $10^{-5}$  torr. The sample consisted of 6-10 layers all deposited without a break in vacuum.

## 2.4 Heavy Ion Irradiation

Krypton ions of energy  $1.0 \pm .05$  MeV generated by the accelerator was used to irradiate the samples with doses ranging from  $3 \times 10^{15}$  to  $5 \times 10^{16}$  atoms/cm<sup>2</sup>. The beam spot of the ion beam was typically of 4mm x 5mm size. The irradiation was carried out at substrate temperatures from 25° to 260°C.

The ion bombardments on Si/Ge/SiO<sub>2</sub> samples were carried out in the heavy ion irradiation chamber Fig.2.3. The chamber is mounted on a Turbo Molecular pump. This can provide vacuum up to  $10^{-6}$  torr. It has a movable sample holder with the help of which a number of samples can be irradiated without any break in vacuum. The holder is electrically isolated by a perspex flange. A current integrator connected to the sample holder measures the total charge acquired during irradiation. The current integrator can be preset for a value of collected charge. As soon as the deposited charge equals the preset value a signal is generated which is given to a electronic circuit to close a shutter in the path of the ion beam. In this way irradiation for a predetermined value of a dose can be performed. Surrounding the sample holder is a suppressor arrangement which is a cylinder made of Aluminum sheet kept at a potential of nearly -260V relative to the grounded chamber. This inhibits the emission of secondary electrons from the sample during Krypton ion implantation, preventing the interference of secondary electrons with the measurement of total charge. The beam entering the chamber is collimated by the X-Y slits and is further collimated by an aperture mounted just before the sample holder [52]. The irradiations were carried out using low ion current density between .1 to .2  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ .

## 2.4 Heavy Ion Irradiation

Krypton ions of energy  $1.0 \pm .05$  MeV generated by the accelerator was used to irradiate the samples with doses ranging from  $3 \times 10^{15}$  to  $5 \times 10^{16}$  atoms/cm<sup>2</sup>. The beam spot of the ion beam was typically of 4mm x 5mm size. The irradiation was carried out at substrate temperatures from 25<sup>o</sup> to 260<sup>o</sup>C.

The ion bombardments on Si/Ge/SiO<sub>2</sub> samples were carried out in the heavy ion irradiation chamber Fig.2.3. The chamber is mounted on a Turbo Molecular pump. This can provide vacuum up to 10<sup>-6</sup> torr. It has a movable sample holder with the help of which a number of samples can be irradiated without any break in vacuum. The holder is electrically isolated by a perspex flange. A current integrator connected to the sample holder measures the total charge acquired during irradiation. The current integrator can be preset for a value of collected charge. As soon as the deposited charge equals the preset value a signal is generated which is given to a electronic circuit to close a shutter in the path of the ion beam. In this way irradiation for a predetermined value of a dose can be performed. Surrounding the sample holder is a suppressor arrangement which is a cylinder made of Aluminum sheet kept at a potential of nearly -260V relative to the grounded chamber. This inhibits the emission of secondary electrons from the sample during Krypton ion implantation, preventing the interference of secondary electrons with the measurement of total charge. The beam entering the chamber is collimated by the X-Y slits and is further collimated by an aperture mounted just before the sample holder [52]. The irradiations were carried out using low ion current density between .1 to .2  $\mu\text{A}/\text{cm}^2$ .

For higher temperature irradiation, the sample holder is modified. It is made of high purity copper for good thermal conduction. The sample holder is isolated from the chamber by means of ceramic insulator to prevent heat loss from the irradiation chamber. The heating arrangement consists of a tungsten filament lamp of high current rating (25V,10A). A reflector of stainless steel sheet is used to focus the light on the sample holder and to prevent the chamber walls from heating by radiation. A chromel-alumel thermocouple junction was placed on the substrate between mica sheets to measure and control the temperature with the help of a Indotherm temperature controller within  $\pm 3^{\circ}\text{C}$ . With the above arrangement temperatures as high as  $330^{\circ}\text{C}$  were reached.

It was observed that during heating, when the current through the heater was more than 3A, the charge meter showed a constant current even in the absence of the ion beam. This can be attributed to the leakage current. Therefore, a charge measurement system independent of the sample holder was used. This works on the principle of the vibrating reed in the path of the ion beam. The current due to the ion beam falling on the reed is a measure of the dose.

## 2.5 Annealing

Ion beams incident on the sample cause radiation induced damage of the irradiated portion. It is necessary from device technology view point to remove this damage. Annealing of samples were carried out in a clean quartz tube in flowing dry nitrogen gas environment. Temperature control was achieved by using an Indotherm

temperature controller with the ability to control within  $\pm 3^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The temperature measurement was made using a calibrated chromel-alumel thermocouple. The annealed samples were used to characterize the samples electrically and optically. Annealing was carried out at  $620^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 15 minutes.

## 1.6 Ion Beam Analysis

Fig.2.4 gives the details of the RBS chamber. This chamber is mounted on a diffusion pump vacuum system with a liquid nitrogen trap which yields a vacuum of the order of  $10^{-6}$  torr. The samples are mounted on a sample holder similar to the one used in the heavy ion irradiation chamber. A suppressor and a similar charge measuring electronics is used.

The Helium ion beam is collimated before entering the RBS chamber by a X-Y slit arrangement to obtain a beam spot of about  $1\text{mm} \times 1\text{mm}$  dimensions. The detector is mounted at a scattering angle of  $150^{\circ}$  and subtends a solid angle of 2.57 milliradian at the center of the beam spot. The silicon surface barrier detector is mounted on a cylinder cooled by the circulation of chilled water. This helps in the reduction of the leakage current in the surface barrier detector from 200nA to 50nA. The detector is kept at a bias of +100V. The electrical signals from the surface barrier detector are analyzed by the usual nuclear electronics and multichannel analyzer. The height of the signal gives the energy of the detected particle. A plot of the energy of the particles versus the frequency of occurrence of the signal is called as a "spectrum" which contains the information regarding the elements and their depth distribution in the sample. In

These measurements an EG&G ORTEC 142A preamplifier, 572 Amplifier and gated biased amplifier an ND65 PC multi channel analyzer connected to a PC were used.

## 2.7 RBS and the RUMP Simulation Package

Ion beams can be used for both material modification and analysis. The text by Feldman gives a comprehensive introduction to some common analysis techniques using ion beams [58]. The Rutherford Backscattering technique is one of the most frequently used techniques for quantitative analysis of composition, thickness and depth profiles of thin solid films or solid samples near the surface region. Due to it's simplicity, versatility and amount of information it can derive in a short data acquisition time it has evolved in the past few years into a major materials characterization tool.

The basic requirements for an RBS measurement is given in the Fig. 2.5. The requirement for RBS are :

1. A particle accelerator to provide required energetic charged particles eg. 2 MeV Van de Graaff accelerator.
2. An ion source which provides ions of desired gaseous species.
3. A scattering chamber described above
4. A computer simulation package to analyze the data.

In this work the DOS package RUMP has been used for analysis

The RUMP simulation program has been developed at the Cornell university by Doolittle and co-workers [59]. In the simulation, a theoretical sample structure consisting of several

ayers of varying thickness is first prepared . The experimental parameters are fed in to the program. A backscattering spectrum thus constructed is compared with the experimental spectrum. This procedure is used iteratively to arrive at the best set of parameters so that the simulated spectrum compares well with the experimental data. For the work in this thesis it was required to simulate the structures of Si-Ge multilayer systems. The backscattering spectra for a Si-Ge as evaporated sample is shown in Fig.2.6 along with the theoretical layer structure.

## 2.8 Optical Characterization

The knowledge of the absorption coefficient as a function of wavelength of a material is necessary to determine the optical band gap of that material. The practical situation for a thin film on a transparent substrate is shown in Fig. 2.7The film has a thickness  $d$  and and absorption coefficient  $\alpha$ . The transparent substrate has a thickness several orders of magnitude larger than  $d$  and absorption coefficient 0.

The transmission  $T$  is a function of wavelength, thickness, refractive index and absorption coefficient of both the sample and the substrate. The refractive index of air is taken to be 1. Films with uniform thickness give rise to interference fringes as shown in Fig 2.8. The interference transmission  $T_{\alpha}$  can be obtained by the relation

$$T_{\alpha} = (T_H T_m)^{1/2}$$

here  $T_m$  and  $T_M$  are the extremes of the interference fringes corresponding to a wavelength  $\lambda$  and the values are obtained by drawing an envelope of the extremes of the transmission spectra.

From the transmission spectra the absorption coefficient as function of wavelength can be obtained by the following relation

$$\ln \left( \frac{I_1}{I_0} \right) = -\alpha d$$

where  $I_2$  is the intensity at that wavelength for transmission through air and  $I_1$  for transmission through sample. A plot of  $(\alpha h\nu)^{1/2}$  vs  $h\nu$  gives the band gap on extrapolation of the graph from the point of change of slope [60].

The schematic diagram of the experimental set up used is given in figure 2.9. The monochromator consists of a diffraction grating. The transmission is measured in terms of the potential drop across a  $1M\Omega$  resistor. A chopper is used to negate any effect of the surrounding illumination. A Si detector is used for wavelengths from 400 nm to 1100 nm after which a Ge detector is used for wavelengths up to 1200 nm.

## 2.9 Resistivity Measurements

The sheet resistance of a semiconductor is an important often measured parameter. The most commonly used technique in the semiconductor industry for measuring resistivity is the "four point probe method" [61]. This method is nondestructive, speedy and does not involve any elaborate preparations. The four point probe comprises



four equally spaced metal probes which are in contact with the semiconducting surface. The probes are at the corner of a square, allowing a smaller geometry like that of our samples. in our arrangement the probes are at the corners of a 3mm x 3mm square.

If the ratio of the layer thickness (X) to the probe spacing (S) is less than 0.4 then the average resistivity of an infinitely thin sample in which the current flow is parallel to the surface is given by :

$$\rho = \left( \frac{\pi}{2 \ln 2} \frac{V}{I} \right) X = 2.266 \frac{V}{I} X \quad \dots \text{ for square probes}$$

The above formula [1] can be used to calculate the resistivity of wafers and diffused and implanted layers. The current flows through the adjacent probes and the voltage is measured across the other two.

## C H A P T E R        3

### RESULTS    AND    DISCUSSIONS

#### General

The results of the Rutherford backscattering spectroscopy, and the optical and electrical characterization are reported and discussed in this chapter. There are two configurations of the multilayered structure deposited on quartz substrates that have been used. Configuration 1 consists of three alternate layers of Si and Ge each with a total thickness of 2700 Å with a nominal composition ratio  $\text{Si}_4\text{Ge}_5$ . Configuration 2 similarly has five alternate layers with a total thickness of 3200 Å with a nominal composition of  $\text{Si}_5\text{Ge}_6$ . The dose dependence study at room temperature and at higher substrate temperatures up to 300°C will be presented and discussed along with the results of resistivity and transmission measurements.

#### 3.1 RBS Measurements and Results

##### 3.1.1 A typical RBS spectrum of a multilayered structure

Fig. 3.1 shows a typical RBS spectrum for a multilayered sample having 5 layers each of Si and Ge with the simulated spectrum on quartz substrate with Si as the top layer. The deposition was

performed to achieve thickness of individual Si and Ge layers of 300 Å each. The actual thicknesses of these layers as obtained from the RBS analysis is given later . It showed a variation up to 30% from the expected configuration. The surface positions of Ge, Si and O are shown by arrows in this figure. The RBS signals from Ge start from channel no 476 and extend to 328 while the Si signals starts at a lower channel no. of 290. The lower energy edge of the signal from Si is not distinct as it overlaps with the signal from the substrate which consists of Si and O. Thus the signals from Ge layers are well separated from Si due to the large separation in their atomic masses. The RBS signals from oxygen present in the multilayer structure rides over the continuous background of the substrate. The Ge signals consists of 5 sharp peaks. Similarly Si also exhibits 5 peaks. These individual peaks belong to the individual Ge/Si layers. Thus the first Si peak ( channel no.290 ) and the first Ge peak ( channel no.476) correspond to the top Si Ge pair of the configuration. The separation between two Ge peaks arises from the presence of a Si layer in between. Nevertheless, there is an overlap between two consecutive peaks of Ge due to the finite detector resolution (13 KeV equivalent to a depth resolution of 100 Å for Ge).

### 3.1.2 CONFIGURATION 1: SIX ALTERNATE LAYERS OF SI AND GE ON QUARTZ SUBSTRATE.

The RBS spectrum of the as-evaporated sample along with the simulated spectrum is shown in Fig. 3.2. The simulated spectrum shows a good visual fit to the experimental spectrum suggesting that the layer structure used in the simulation represents the actual sample structure.

Table 3.1 The configuration of the sample on quartz substrate as revealed is .

Layer no.	Thickness ( $\text{\AA}$ )	Composition		
		Ge	Si	O
1	870	1.00	-	-
2	470		0.75	0.25
3	310	0.953	-	0.047
4	430	-	0.905	0.095
5	380	0.909	-	0.091
6	300	-	0.909	0.091
7	30000	-	1	2

The corresponding geometry is shown in the figure for easy visualization of the sample structure.

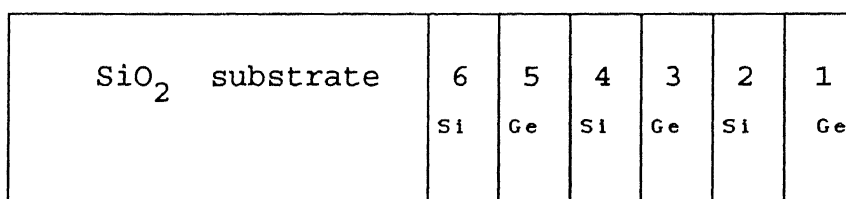


Fig. 3.3

It may be noted that the top layer of Ge in this case is very thick than the expected thickness. This configuration was used to study the dose dependence of mixing at room temperature. The presence of oxygen in the sample as evident from the sample structure obtained from simulations using RUMP can be attributed to the presence of oxide on the surface of the Si and Ge pellets used during thin film deposition. The presence of oxygen could influence the mixing process. However, in an earlier report Desimoni et al. [64] have shown that the presence of oxygen has no effect on mixing of Pd/Si system.. Further, they have shown that irradiation with 80 KeV Ar ions resulted in the dispersal of oxygen atoms from the contaminated layers resulting in

unhindered mixing. In fact a more energetic beam should be even more efficient for the dispersal [63]. Thus in accordance, we expect that the presence of oxygen in our sample will not affect the mixing of Si/Ge.

The simulation analysis also shows that there is no interfacial interaction between various layers. The RBS spectra showing the effect of 1 MeV Krypton ion irradiation on the above sample for various doses along with their simulated spectra are shown in the figures 3.4, 3.5, and 3.6. The results of TRIM calculations is shown in Fig.3.7.

The simulation structures used for the different doses are given in Tables 3.2, 3.3 and 3.4. From the RBS spectrum analysis of figure 3.2 we note that mixing has occurred at all the interfaces. The top thick layer of Ge has an unreacted thickness of 500 Å. This implies that the Si atoms have come up to a distance of 300 Å from the interface into the Ge layer. This is in accordance with the observations reported for the bilayer structure [52]. Note that the expected composition after complete mixing would have corresponded to  $\text{Si}_{0.44}\text{Ge}_{0.66}$ . There is very little difference in the relative composition of Si and Ge in different layers obtained after mixing for the dose  $3 \times 10^{16} \text{at/cm}^2$ . For a higher dose of  $5 \times 10^{16} \text{at/cm}^2$  the thickness of the unreacted top Ge layer has decreased considerably. From the bilayer results [52] it is seen that for high doses of  $5 \times 10^{16} \text{at/cm}^2$  Si

diffuses into Ge up to  $600^{\circ}\text{\AA}$  across the interface. For lower doses the distance travelled by the Si atoms across the interface is about  $300^{\circ}\text{\AA}$ . Thus, it is in agreement with the results obtained for the bilayer configuration. In general alternate Ge and Si rich layers are found to have been synthesized. From the TRIM calculation (Fig 3.7) we see that the average energy deposited is  $120\text{ eV//ion/\AA}$  over the entire thickness range. Thus the mixing at all the interfaces can be explained. Fig. 3.8 shows a comparison of mixing occurred with  $5 \times 10^{16}\text{at/cm}^2$  with the as evaporated sample.

Table 3.2 Structure of the sample after irradiating with Kr ions with a dose of  $2 \times 10^{16}\text{at/cm}^2$ . The thickness is in  $\text{\AA}$ .

Layer	Thickness	Composition		
		Ge	Si	O
1	500	1	-	-
2	300	0.9	0.1	0.1
3	400	0.2	0.7	0.1
4	280	0.5	0.50	0.02
5	500	0.3	0.7	0.1
6	320	0.6	0.4	-
7	320	0.2	0.74	0.06
8	30000	.	1	2

Table 3.3 Structure of the sample after irradiating with Kr ions with a dose of  $3 \times 10^{16} \text{at/cm}^2$ . The thickness is in  $\text{\AA}$ .

Layer	Thickness	Composition		
		Ge	Si	O
1	500	1	-	-
2	300	0.9	0.1	0.1
3	420	0.25	0.65	.08
4	280	0.5	0.5	-
5	500	0.3	0.7	0.1
6	300	0.6	0.4	-
7	300	0.2	0.8	0.1
8	30000	-	1	2

Table 3.4 Structure of the sample after irradiating with Kr ions with a dose of  $5 \times 10^{16} \text{at/cm}^2$ . The thickness is in  $\text{\AA}$ .

Layer	Thickness	Composition		
		Ge	Si	O
1	80	1	-	-
2	580	0.9	.1	-
3	140	0.8	0.2	-
4	160	0.7	0.3	0.1
5	440	0.3	0.7	0.05
6	270	0.5	0.5	0.1
7	380	0.3	0.8	-
8	410	0.55	0.5	0.1
9	300	0.2	0.7	0.1
10	30000	-	1	2



### 3.1.3 CONFIGURATION 2 : TEN ALTERNATE LAYERS OF Si AND Ge ON QUARTZ SUBSTRATE.

The RBS data obtained along with the simulated curve for the as vaporated sample is shown in Fig. 3.1. Since the simulated spectrum gives a good visual fit to the experimental spectrum, we can herefore, roughly estimate the sample configuration . The sample configuration used in the calculations is given in table 3.5.

Table 3.5 Sample configuration of the 10 layered sample.

The thickness is in  $\text{\AA}^0$ .

Layer	Thickness	Composition		
		Ge	Si	O
1	170	-	1	1
2	240	1	-	-
3	290	-	1	0.15
4	320	1	-	-
5	350	-	1	0.21
6	350	1	-	-
7	320	-	1	0.27
8	310	1	-	-
9	500	-	1	1
10	330	1	-	0.1
11	30000	-	1	2

he sample geometry of the 10 layered sample is shown below

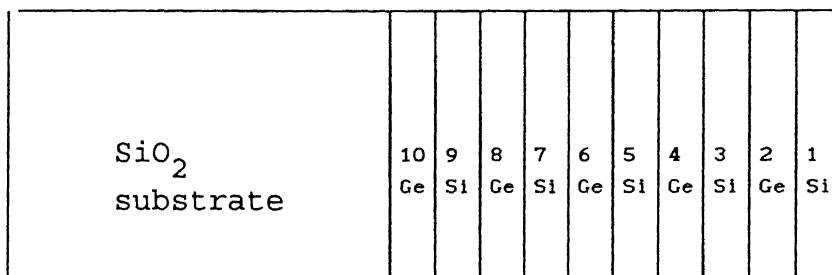


Fig 3.9

It may be noted that the top layer of Si in this sample has a high concentration of oxygen. This could be because of Silicon's tendency to form an oxide very readily. As discussed in the previous section, the presence of oxygen atoms does not effect the ion beam mixing as the oxygen atoms get dispersed because of ion bombardment. This sample was used to investigate the effect of high temperature irradiation on mixing at a single dose of  $1 \times 10^{16} \text{at/cm}^2$ .

The RBS spectra showing the effect of 1 MeV Krypton ion irradiations at room temperature and high substrate temperature along with the simulated spectra are shown in Figures 3.10, 3.11, 3.12 respectively. The results of TRIM calculation are shown in Fig 3.13.

The structures obtained from the simulation analysis are given in Tables 3.5, 3.6 and 3.7.

From Table 3.5 we note that mixing does not occur at the first interface (from the top layer) and the last interface of Si and Ge. Also the mixed layer of composition  $\text{Si}_{.5}\text{Ge}_{.5}$  is sandwiched between elemental Si and elemental Ge layers. It may be noted that the final composition of the configuration on complete mixing would have yielded the composition of  $\text{Si}_{0.55}\text{Ge}_{0.45}$ . Mixing at higher temperatures of  $200^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $250^{\circ}\text{C}$  show mixing at all the interfaces. However, layers of unreacted Si and Ge are present up to a depth of  $1600 \text{ \AA}$  below which there is no unreacted layer. Thus mixing between the layers increase beyond a depth of  $1600 \text{ \AA}$  for samples whose substrate temperatures were  $200^{\circ}\text{C}$  and  $250^{\circ}\text{C}$ . The thickness of the unreacted Si and Ge layers do not change considerably with a rise of  $50^{\circ}\text{C}$  in temperature. Whereas there is a rise in the mixing observed with temperature, it shows the same mixing at temperatures  $200$  and  $250^{\circ}\text{C}$ .

To study the temperature dependence mixing, irradiations were carried out for substrate temperatures of  $300^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Contrary to the expected Arrhenius behavior, the mixing shows a decline as compared to the mixing occurring at  $200^{\circ}\text{C}$  and even room temperature for the same dose. Comparison of the spectrum obtained for the sample irradiated at  $300^{\circ}\text{C}$  with the as evaporated spectrum (Fig. 3.14) shows a decrease in

the trough and peak heights indicating the occurrence of mixing. When the spectrum is compared with the one obtained for room temperature irradiations, we observe a reduction in mixing (Fig. 3.15). This result is surprising. However, in the room temperature irradiations carried out for the bilayer samples by Chaudhari [52] it has been reported that the growth rate at higher doses ( $5 \times 10^{16} \text{at/cm}^2$ ) is considerably retarded. Such retardation at high temperatures is indeed quite surprising. The reasons for such retardation and the underlying mechanisms of inhibition of growth is not clear and needs to be investigated in detail.

From the TRIM calculations (Fig. 3.13) the energy deposited by the incident projectile to the target atoms from Fig 3.12 clearly shows a rise in the energy deposited with depth. Approximately at a depth of  $1200 \text{ \AA}$  the energy deposited becomes constant up to the interface between the substrate and the last layer. This constant energy is  $\sim 120 \text{ eV/ion/\AA}$ . This effect of the increase in the energy deposited from the surface up to a depth of  $1200 \text{ \AA}$  can be seen in the pattern of mixing that has taken place. The reduction in the peak to trough ratio is significant beginning from the sixth deposited layer which is at a depth of  $1250 \text{ \AA}$ . Figures 3.16, 3.17, 3.18 compares the mixing occurring at room temperature, at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  and  $250^\circ\text{C}$  with the as

vaporated sample.

Table 3.6 Sample configuration after irradiation with  $1 \times 10^{16} \text{ at/cm}^2$  at room temperature. The thickness is in  $\text{\AA}$ .

Layer	Thickness	Composition		
		Ge	Si	O
1	170	-	1	0.5
2	220	1	-	-
3	20	0.5	0.5	-
4	290	-	1	0.08
5	85	0.5	0.5	-
6	230	1	-	-
7	90	0.5	0.5	-
8	250	-	1	0.21
9	150	0.5	0.5	-
10	160	1	-	-
11	130	0.5	0.5	-
12	170	-	1	0.27
13	130	0.5	0.5	-
14	180	1	-	-
15	70	0.5	0.5	-
16	460	-	1	1
17	320	1	-	.1
18	30000		1	2

Table 3.7 Sample configuration after irradiating at 200°C with a dose of  $1 \times 10^{16} \text{ at/cm}^2$ . The thickness is in Å.

Layer	Thickness	Composition		
		Ge	Si	O
1	140	-	1	0.5
2	30	0.5	0.5	-
3	200	1	-	-
4	60	0.5	0.5	-
5	210	-	1	0.08
6	120	0.5	0.5	-
7	190	1	-	-
8	130	0.5	0.5	-
9	190	-	1	0.21
10	250	0.5	0.5	-
11	100	1	-	-
12	160	0.5	0.5	-
13	170	0.3	0.7	0.27
14	220	0.5	0.5	-
15	100	0.7	0.3	0.1
16	190	0.5	0.5	0.1
17	360	0.3	0.7	0.8
18	150	0.5	0.5	0.1
19	250	0.7	0.3	0.1
20	30000	-	1	2

Table 3.8 Sample configuration after irradiating at 250°C with a dose of  $1 \times 10^{16}$  at/cm<sup>2</sup>. The thickness is in Å.

Layer	Thickness	Composition		
		Ge	Si	O
1	100	-	1	0.4
2	40	0.5	0.5	-
3	170	1	-	-
4	100	0.5	0.5	-
5	210	-	1	0.08
6	130	0.5	0.5	
7	180	1	-	0.05
8	140	0.5	0.5	-
9	170	-	1	0.21
10	260	0.5	0.5	-
11	90	1	-	0.2
12	160	0.5	0.5	0.1
13	90	0.3	0.7	0.4
14	60	0.35	1	0.15
15	200	0.5	0.05	0.1
16	140	0.8	0.3	0.15
17	170	0.5	0.5	0.2
18	250	0.3	0.7	0.65
19	170	0.5	0.5	0.05
20	270	0.7	0.3	0.1
21	30000	-	1	2

### 3.2 MIXING MECHANISM

It is known that for bilayer configuration the mixing efficiencies for a number of systems show thermal and athermal regime of mixing. There is a characteristic temperature  $T_c$  below which the mixing is independent of temperature. In this regime mixing is induced by the following processes :

#### (i) Recoil implantation

In this, as the incident ion penetrates the target, it makes some high energy collision with target atoms, and these atoms recoil far from their initial locations. The number of high energy collisions is small as the cross section for the high energy collision is small. This process is independent of temperature.

#### (ii) Cascade mixing

As the cascade develops in time, secondary recoil atoms are displaced and they in turn displace other atoms. The initial momentum of the incident particle is soon lost and the cascade becomes isotropic. The cascade formation is illustrated in fig. 3.19 and 3.20. for 100 KeV and 1MeV krypton incident on Si/Ge bilayer structures. Note that for the lower energy of 100 KeV when the Ge film is on the top of the sample the collisions almost result into a single cascade. For a high energy beam we see non overlapping cascades called the local cascades along the path of the ion. Further the local cascade overlap is more prominent in Ge than in Si.



The cascades when developed in a limited volume inside a solid with the majority of atoms temporarily in motion, thermal spike is observed. It is said that the atomic motion has reached a state of quasi-equilibrium. The questions regarding the culmination of the collision cascades into a spike, the energy density of the spike etc. have been explained on the basis of the novel approach of fractal geometry of the collisions by Cheng and others [67,68]. For a space filling cascade a spike can occur when the interaction potential is characterized by a  $V(r) \propto r^{-1/m}$  with  $0 < m < (1/6)$ . In reality these potentials correspond to a kinetic energy in the hundreds eV to eV range. Critical energy  $E_c$  is the energy at which the inverse power potential takes the exponent  $m = 1/6$ . This energy is a characteristic of the atomic number and it decreases with  $Z$ . For  $Z < 20$  its value goes down below the typical displacement energy  $E_d = 30\text{eV}$ . The spikes are not expected to occur for pure elemental solids with  $Z < 20$ . Thus, in the Si/Ge system, spikes are not expected to form in the Si layers. However, as the mixing proceeds, with the migration of Ge and Si atoms across the interface, spikes would form in all layers. Cheng [67] has also calculated theoretically the dose dependence of the mixing for diffusion in cascade and thermal spike. The square of the mixed thickness shows a linear dependence on the dose and the deposited energy  $F_d$  for cascade mixing and a non linear dependence for mixing by

hermal spike .

The earlier results from bilayer configurations [52,53] show an initial linear dependence of mixing followed by a non linear dependence of mixing on dose. This is in accordance with the predictions made above that for SiGe layered structure the mixing via thermal spike should occur at higher doses. From the temperature dependent studies of mixing of bilayer samples Ramakrishnan [53] has reported that the critical temperature of this system is 205°C above which the mixing becomes temperature dependent. In accordance with this observation we also find that higher degree of mixing leading towards homogeneous composition occurs at 200°C and 250°C as compared to room temperature for similar irradiation fluences.

So far, most of the work carried out in multilayer and bilayer mixing has been essentially devoted to metal/metal and metal/semiconductor system. The models and mechanisms proposed may be applicable to the Si/Ge ie. semiconductor/semiconductor system. Si/Ge system is unique as compared to the above mentioned systems as it is the only elemental semiconductor/semiconductor system. Interestingly, although it forms a solid solution across the entire compositional range, under the irradiation conditions and it goes into a highly disordered state at room temperature. For alloy formation in ion beam mixing several phenomenological models have been proposed. Liu et al. [13] have proposed a "structural difference rule" to predict the

ature of the mixed alloy. According to this rule ion beam mixing of elements having different crystal structure result into the formation of an amorphous alloy when the alloy composition lies in the two phase region of the phase diagram. For elements with different crystal structure but with composition in the single phase region of the phase diagram and for elements having same crystal structure metastable or stable crystalline phases result. On the basis of this rule Si/Ge system should form a crystalline alloy since both have same crystal structure and they form a continuous solid solution. However, in contrast, we find that a homogeneous alloy formation does not take place even at the highest dose for the multilayer structure. This might be due to the fact that both Si and Ge go into a highly disordered state under irradiation. According to phenomenological model proposed by Johnson et al. [67], ion mixing can be treated as a random walk in the athermal regime. This model applies specifically in well developed cascades where the particles are thermalizing after the incident ion and secondary ions lose most of their energies in about  $10^{-13}$  sec. In this model the mixing parameter depends on the heat of mixing and the cohesive energy of the system. For a bilayer the mixing parameter is given by

$$\frac{Dt}{\phi} = \frac{1}{4\rho^2} \frac{K_1 e^2}{(\Delta H_c)^2} \left[ 1 + K_2 \frac{\Delta H_m}{\Delta H_c} \right]$$

where  $K_1$  and  $K_2$  are constants,  $\epsilon$  is the energy deposited per unit path length,  $\rho$  is the average atomic density,  $\Delta H_c$  is the cohesive energy of the system and  $\Delta H_m$  is the heat of mixing. On examining the above equation we see that  $\Delta H_m$  represents the driving force of mixing and  $\Delta H_c$  represents the resistance to mixing. It has been reported that a mismatch strain exerts a biasing force to enhance mixing in the athermal regime in case of bilayers [68]. For samples with multiple strained layers, the enhancement of mixing can be larger due to larger biasing force in this type of structures.

It has been noted that the mixing rate in the athermal regime appears to be faster for epitaxial samples prepared by Molecular Beam Epitaxy (MBE) than for amorphous samples prepared by e-beam evaporation. The Si/Ge system shows much less mixing as compared to mixing observed in other systems. This can be attributed to the amorphous nature of the films and the fact that the heat of mixing is small and cohesive energy is high for the system. Further since the system is remaining amorphous the thermodynamic parameters are not aiding the mixing process.

We have not observed any significant difference in mixing for the irradiation temperature of 200°C and 250°C. (Fig.3.21) Interestingly, at 300 °C we have seen a reduction in the mixing across the interfaces. This suggests that there is a demixing phenomena occurring

at this temperature due to the change in defect mobilities and strain relaxation. However in order to completely understand the underlying phenomena measurements over a wide temperature range up to  $900^{\circ}\text{C}$ , at which the crystallization of Si/Ge occurs, have to be performed. On the basis of the arguments given above, we feel that a uniform composition is possible to obtain by ion beam mixing of Si/Ge multilayers at irradiation temperatures about  $900^{\circ}\text{C}$ . It may be noted that this temperature is still much lower than the one required to synthesize thermally a homogeneous SiGe alloy.

In summary, the krypton ions induce mixing over the entire multilayer structure giving rise to a variable SiGe composition across the depth. However uniform mixing is not observed under the presently used parameters.

### 3.3 Transmission Spectroscopy

A typical spectrum obtained is shown in figure 3.22. The presence of interference fringes indicates the uniformity of the film deposited. The measurements were performed after annealing the samples at  $620^{\circ}\text{C}$ . Subsequent X-ray measurements showed that the samples are in a highly disordered state. The energy dependence of absorption coefficient allows us to determine the semiconductor band gap value and the nature of optical transition. The following relations are well known.

$$\alpha = B(h\nu - E_g)^{1/2} \quad \text{for direct gap semiconductor}$$

$$\alpha = B(h\nu - E_g \pm E_p)^2 \quad \text{for indirect gap semiconductor}$$

The high values of  $\alpha$  ( $\sim 10^4 \text{ cm}^{-1}$ ) are characteristic of the direct allowed transitions [65]. To obtain the band gap  $\alpha^2$  vs.  $h\nu$  is plotted. It is well known that the absorption coefficient values satisfy the above given equations in a very narrow energy range [66]. Thus only a few experimental points obey the above mentioned relation. A typical plot of  $\alpha^2$  vs.  $h\nu$  is shown in figure 3.23. On extrapolating the straight line we get the band gap of the material from the x-intercept. The band gap obtained for all the samples irrespective of their irradiating condition was of the order of 0.8 eV. This result could be explained by considering the fact that the samples examined consisted of  $\text{Si}_x\text{Ge}_{1-x}$  of variable composition over the entire depth. Also the mixed regions are in a highly disordered state. Because of this a number of direct transitions can occur. No change in the band gap can be explained by considering the dominance of tail end mixing in the density of states in the disordered structure.

### 3.4 Resistivity Measurements

The resistivity measurements were made to study the effect

of dose is shown in Fig 3.24. There is a lowering of resistivity after the annealing of the samples. The resistivity shows a sharp decline from the as evaporated sample to the irradiated sample after annealing at  $620^{\circ}\text{C}$  in an inert environment of dry flowing Nitrogen for 15 minutes. However, the annealed samples do show a systematic increase in the resistivity with increasing dose. The significant decrease in the resistivity after annealing is an indication that damage has been recovered. Nevertheless, the dose dependence of resistivity of the annealed samples show that the significant disorder is still present in the sample. It is noteworthy that the damage recovery has occurred using significantly lower temperature and relatively short time.

The substrate temperature dependence of room temperature resistivity is illustrated in Fig 3.25. One observes that for the same dose and annealing conditions, there is a fall in the resistivity measured at room temperature with increasing substrate temperature. This feature is in addition to the fact that there is a fall in resistivity after ion irradiation and annealing. The fall in resistivity with increasing substrate temperature is in agreement with the fact that high temperature irradiation has the advantage of in situ annealing of defects produced during irradiation.

One of the consistent features of sheet resistivity measurements is that the as deposited layers have higher resistivities

than the ion irradiated ones. This clearly indicates that the as evaporated layers are initially more disordered and ion irradiation helps in relaxing the amorphous layer which is in agreement with the discussion made above in connection with the mixing mechanism. In the relaxed structure there is a higher possibility of electrical activation of shallower impurities giving rise to lower resistivity.



## CHAPTER 4

### SUMMARY AND CONCLUSIONS

There is a renewed interest in the Si-Ge system due to its possible applications in optoelectronic technology. Ion beam mixing can provide a powerful method for synthesizing Si-Ge alloy of desired composition on a preselected region of a sample at considerably low temperatures. In order to synthesize mixed  $\text{Si}_x\text{Ge}_{1-x}$  layers of graded or uniform composition, ion beam mixing of multilayer configuration is a unique method which has not been explored. In view of this, in this study, ion beam mixing in multilayered sample configuration was undertaken to synthesize an alloy of predetermined composition and to study its optical and electrical characteristics.

Alternate films of Si and Ge were deposited on quartz substrate in high vacuum to yield multilayered structure of 6-10 films each of thickness 250-350 Å. Mixing experiments were performed using Krypton ions of energy 1.0 MeV. The irradiation dose was varied from  $8 \times 10^{15}$  to  $5 \times 10^{16}$  at/cm<sup>2</sup>. The irradiations were carried out at irradiation temperatures from Room Temperature to 300°C. The samples were characterized using Rutherford backscattering spectrometry, Transmission spectroscopy, four point probe and XRD measurements. Detailed simulations of the RBS spectra were carried out to investigate the change in the layer structure due to irradiation. The main conclusions of this study are listed below

1. The mixing at room temperature shows mixing across all the layers of the multilayer structure resulting into a variable composition of  $\text{Si}_x\text{Ge}_{1-x}$  over the entire thickness of the multilayer. From the TRIM calculations mixing across the total multilayer thickness is also expected. The mixing occurs via cascades in the beginning while mixing thermal spikes dominate at higher doses.

2. Considerably enhanced mixing at high temperatures has been observed when compared to the mixing occurring at room temperature. However, the mixing occurring at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  and  $250^\circ\text{C}$  are the same. At  $300^\circ\text{C}$  the mixing trend is reversed resulting into much lower mixing as compared to the mixing at  $200^\circ\text{C}$ .

3. The enhancement of mixing at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  is attributed to the radiation enhanced diffusion occurring at this temperature which is just near the critical temperature for this system.

4. The saturation of mixing at  $250^\circ\text{C}$  and retardation at  $300^\circ\text{C}$  shows the effect of demixing which is competing the mixing process above  $200^\circ\text{C}$ . The demixing can result from the strain relaxation due to ion irradiation and the highly disordered nature of the film.

5. The phenomenological models, which consider the energy deposition, the dose and the thermodynamic properties, proposed for metal/metal and metal/semiconductor systems are not completely applicable to the Si/Ge system because under irradiation both the elements remain in amorphous state. Under this condition the thermodynamic properties like cohesive

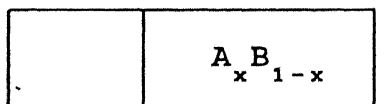
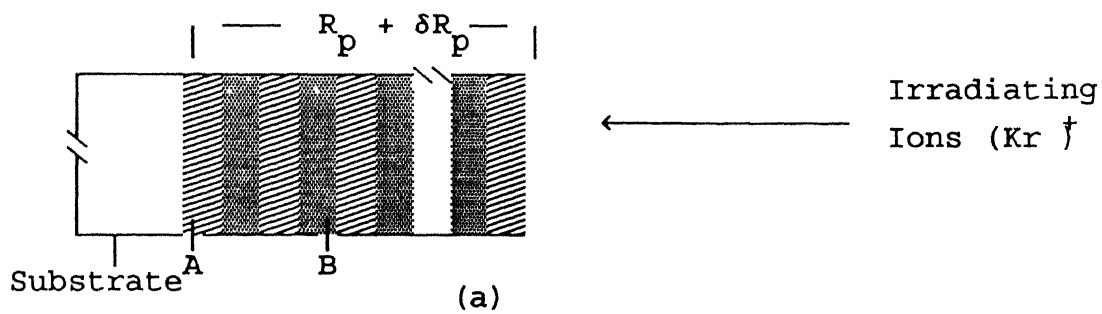
energy, heat of mixing etc. can't be utilized. Nevertheless, the small heat of mixing value and large cohesive energy for crystalline composition suggests a slow mixing process which agrees with our observation.

6. The XRD measurements show that the as evaporated, irradiated and annealed ( $620^{\circ}\text{C}$  for 15 min) are in a highly disordered state.

7. The value of the band gap is  $\sim 0.8$  eV irrespective of the irradiating conditions. Since the multilayers remain amorphous even after annealing tail end mixing dominates as far as the band gap is concerned.

8 The resistivity measurements show that a low temperature heat treatment is enough to improve the conductivity of the sample indicating the removal of most of the ion induced damages. However, complete recovery of the damage has not occurred as it is evident from the increase in resistivity with dose.

9. A definite evidence of in situ annealing of defects is seen in the form of the decrease in resistivity with increase in substrate temperature for the same dose.



Crystalline

or



Amorphous

Fig 2.1

TRIM 02

ION TYPE <sup>+</sup> Kr  
 ION ENERGY 1 MeV  
 ION ANGLE 0 Deg.

Target layers Depth

Si .5 .5 1  $\mu$ m

IONS COMPLETED 3000  
 Range (A)

Longitudinal 4795

Lateral Projection 1023

Radial Projection 1599

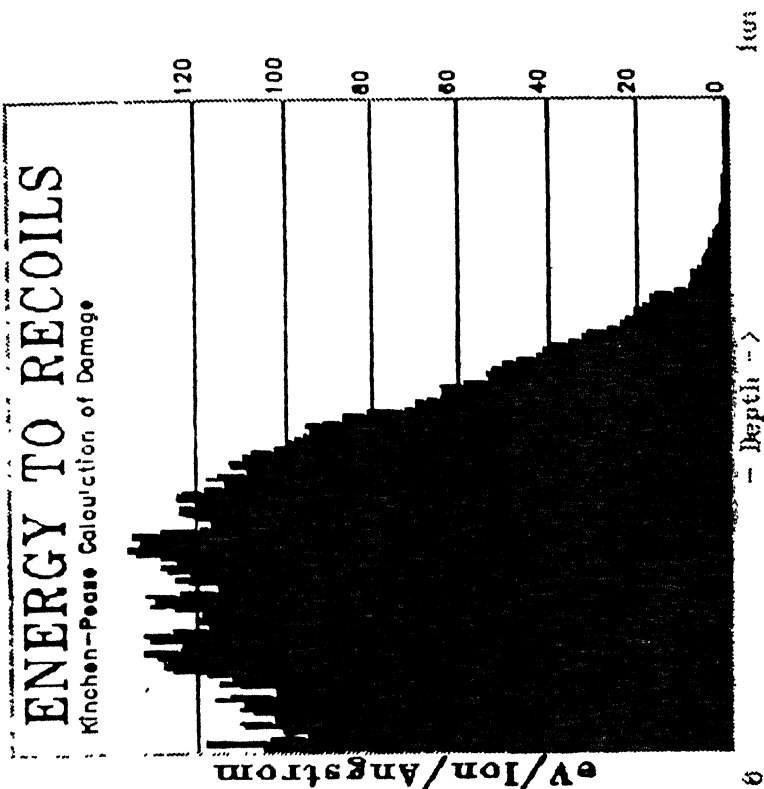


Fig. 2.2(Ca) TRIM calculations to estimate the total thickness of the sample. The fig. shows the energy deposited by the incident ion in the target.

# TRIM 92

ION TYPE Kr<sup>+</sup>  
 ION ENERGY 1 MeV  
 ION ANGLE 0 Deg.

Target layers Depth

Si .5 Ge .5 1 μm

IONS COMPLETED 3000  
 Range (A)

Longitudinal 4795

Lateral Projection 1023

Radial Projection 1599

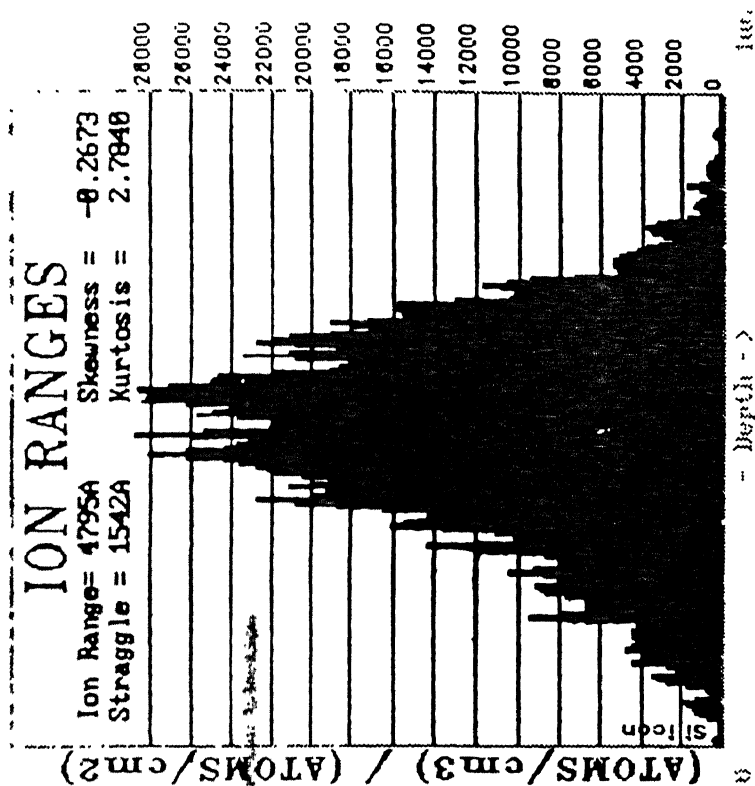


Fig. 2.2(b) TRIM calculations showing the range of Krypton ions in the substrate.

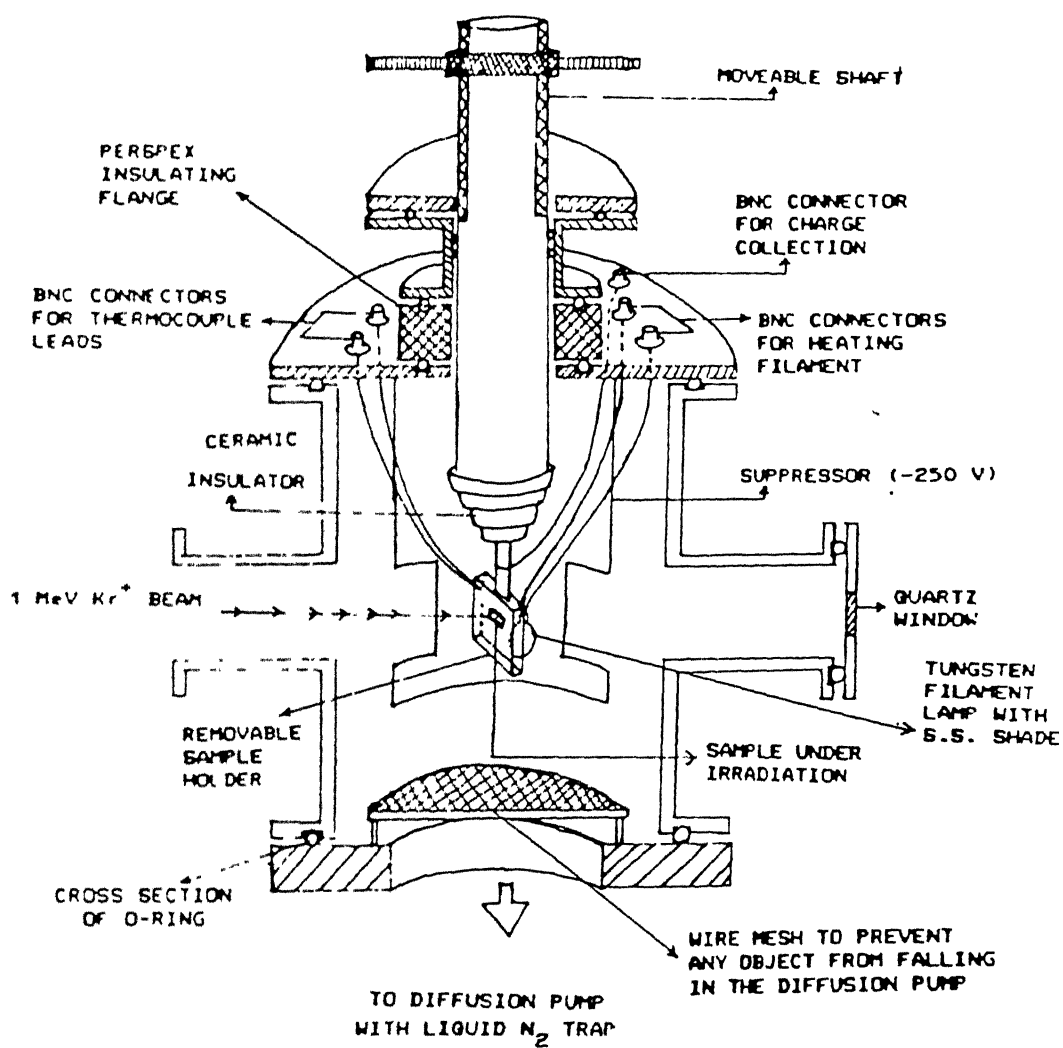


Fig. 2.3 The Heavy Ion Irradiation Chamber

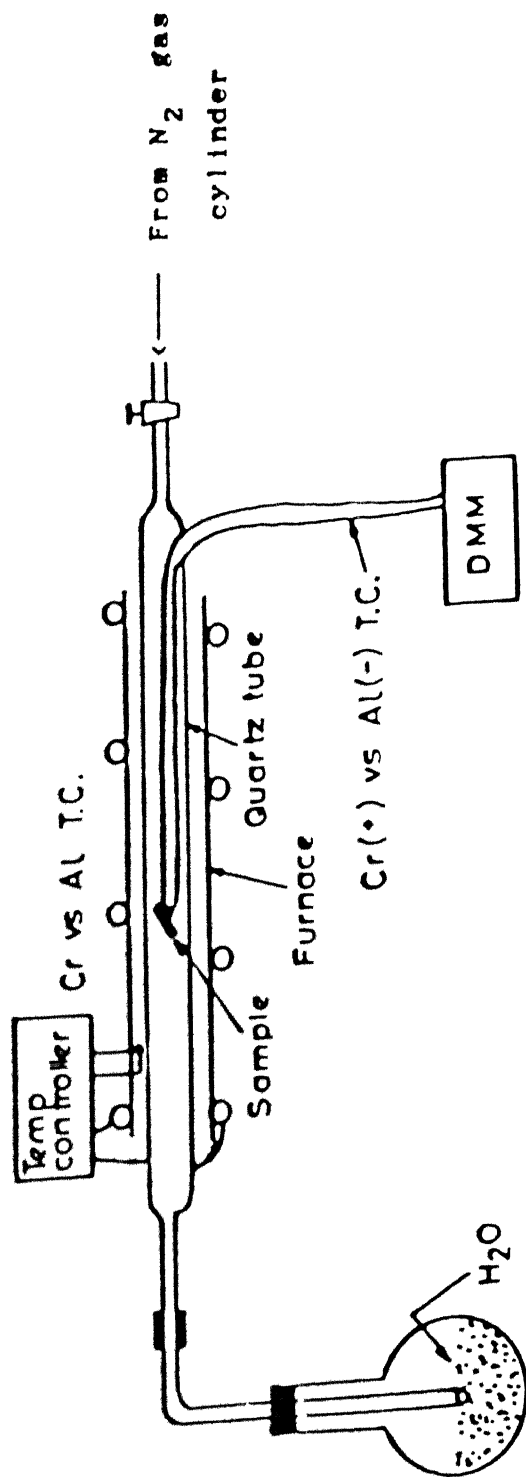


Fig. 2.4 Experimental arrangement for annealing the samples



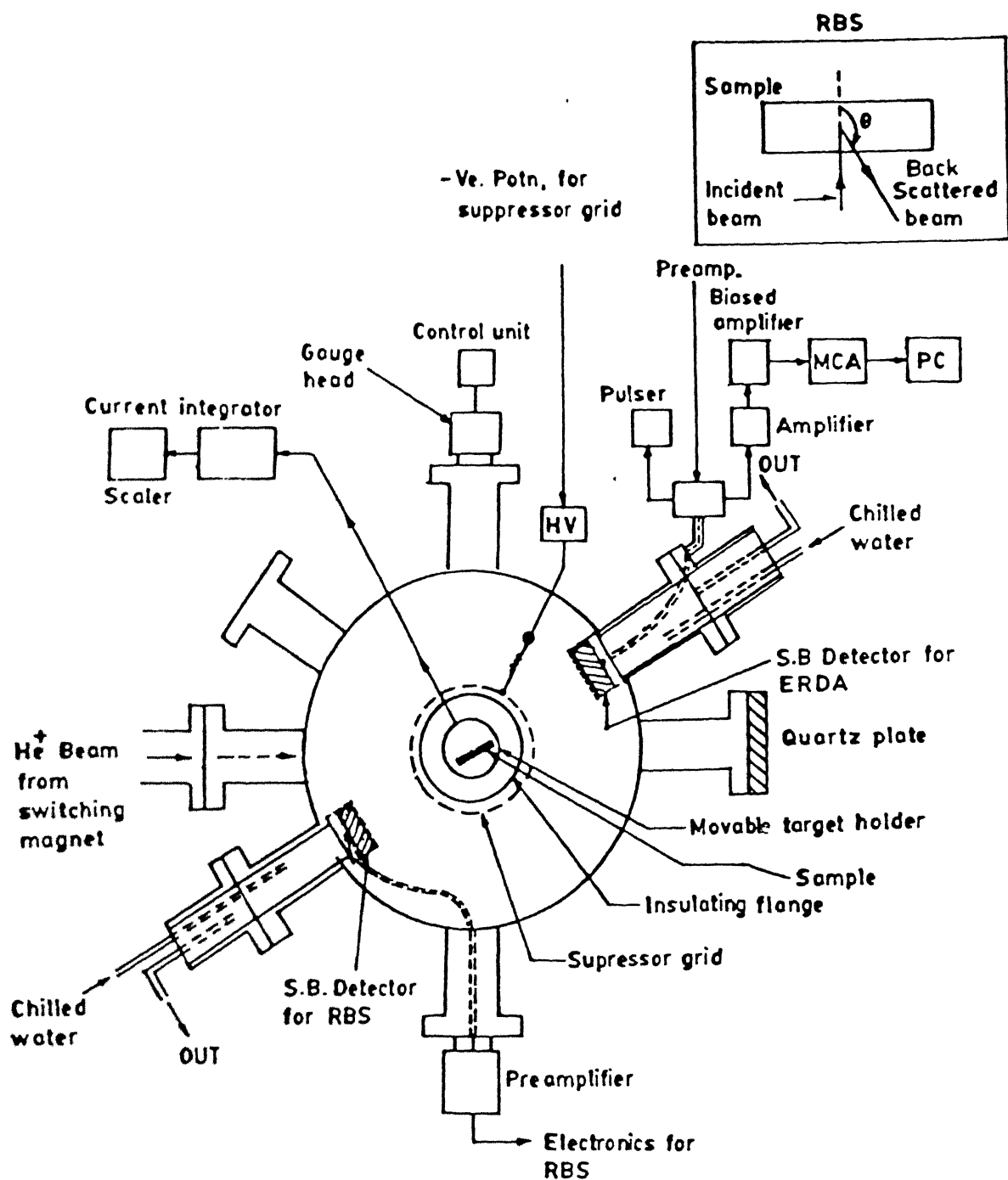


Fig. 2.5 The RBS Chamber

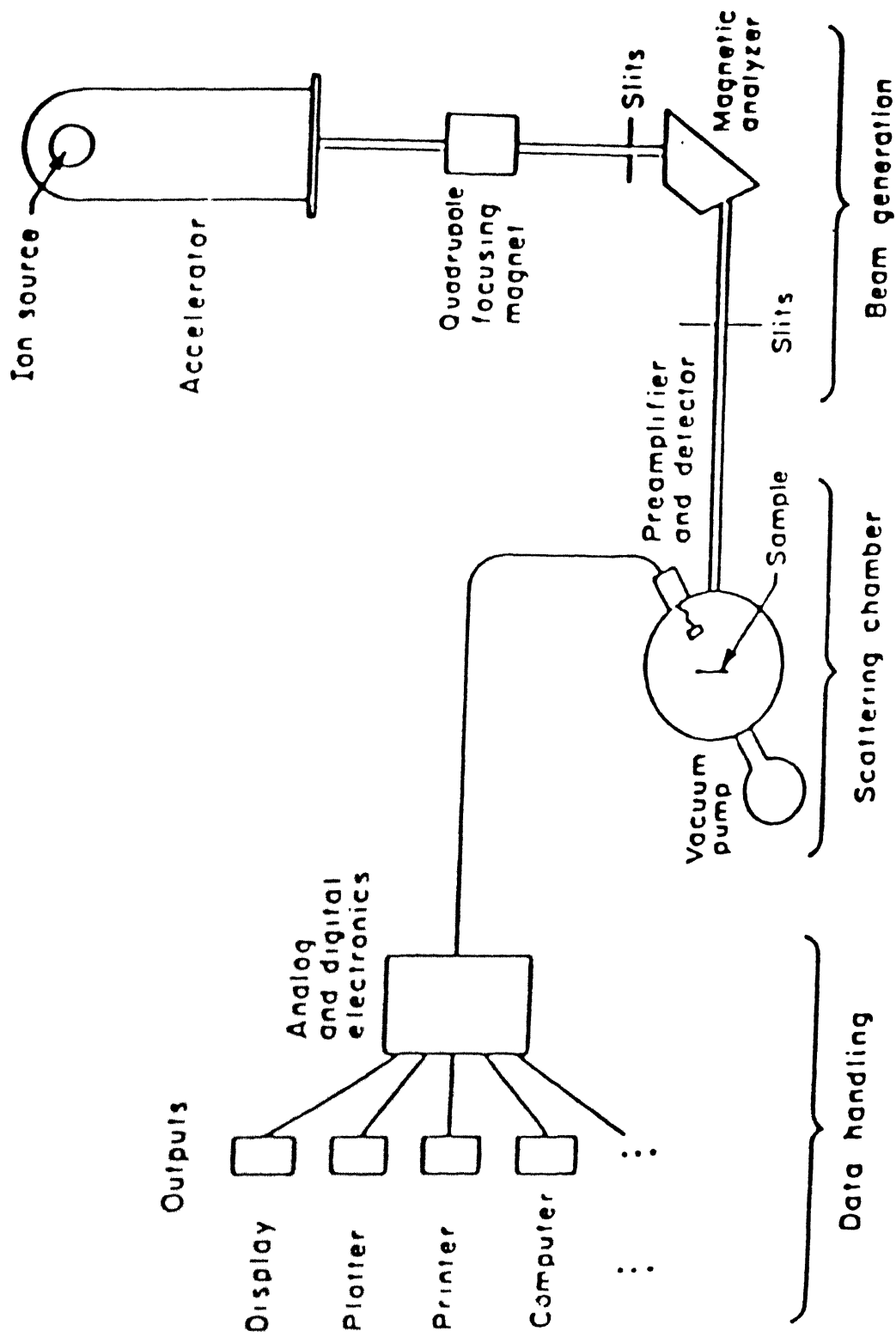


Fig. 2.6 Schematic diagram of a typical backscattering spectrometry system in use today.



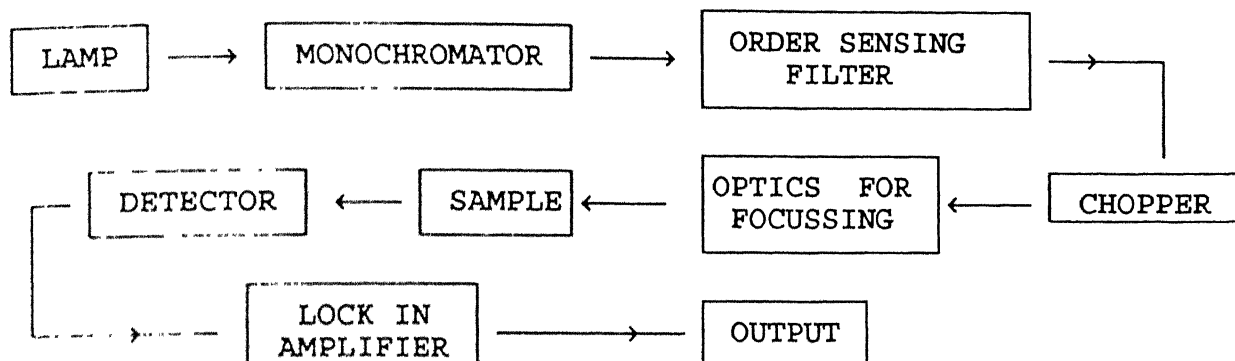


Fig 2.9

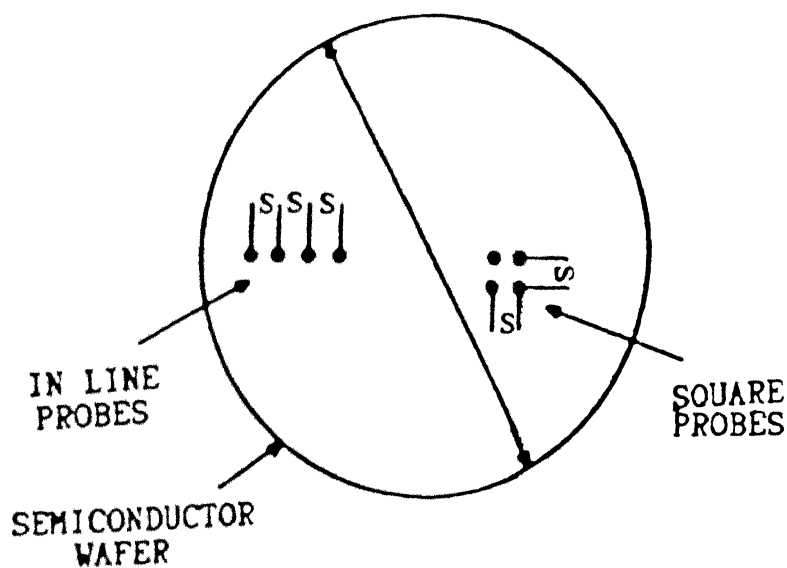


Fig. 2.11 The layout of 'in-line' and 'square' four point probe geometries. 'S' is the probe spacing.

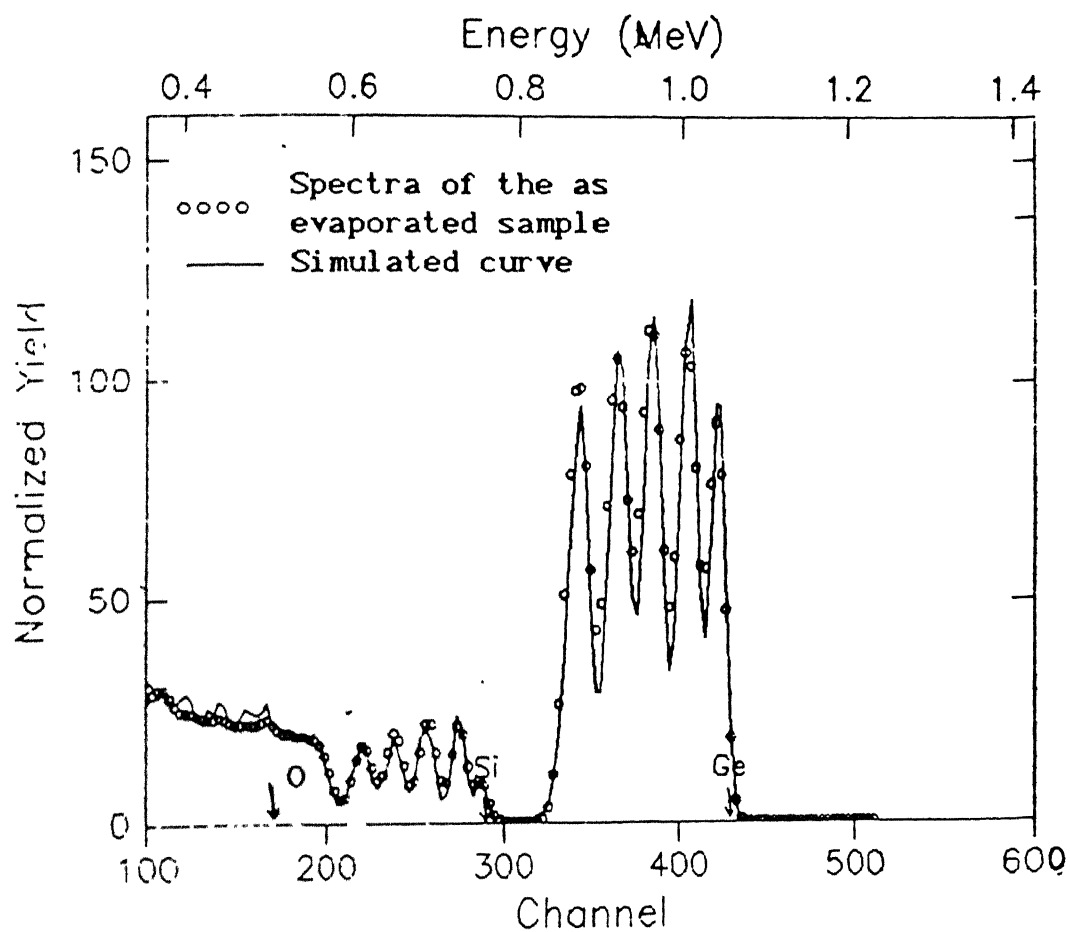


Fig. 3.1 RBS spectra of the as evaporated sample along with the simulated curve (10 layers)

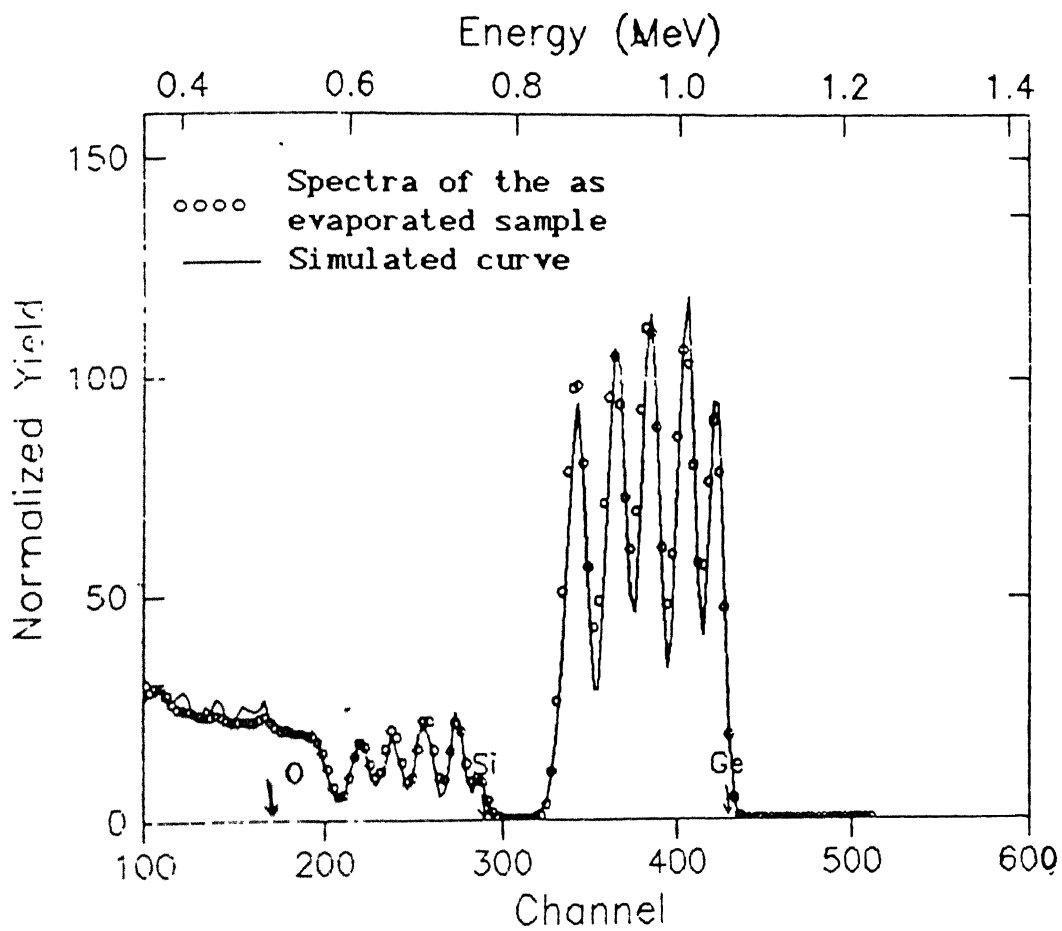


Fig. 3.1 RBS spectra of the as evaporated sample along with the simulated curve (10 layers)

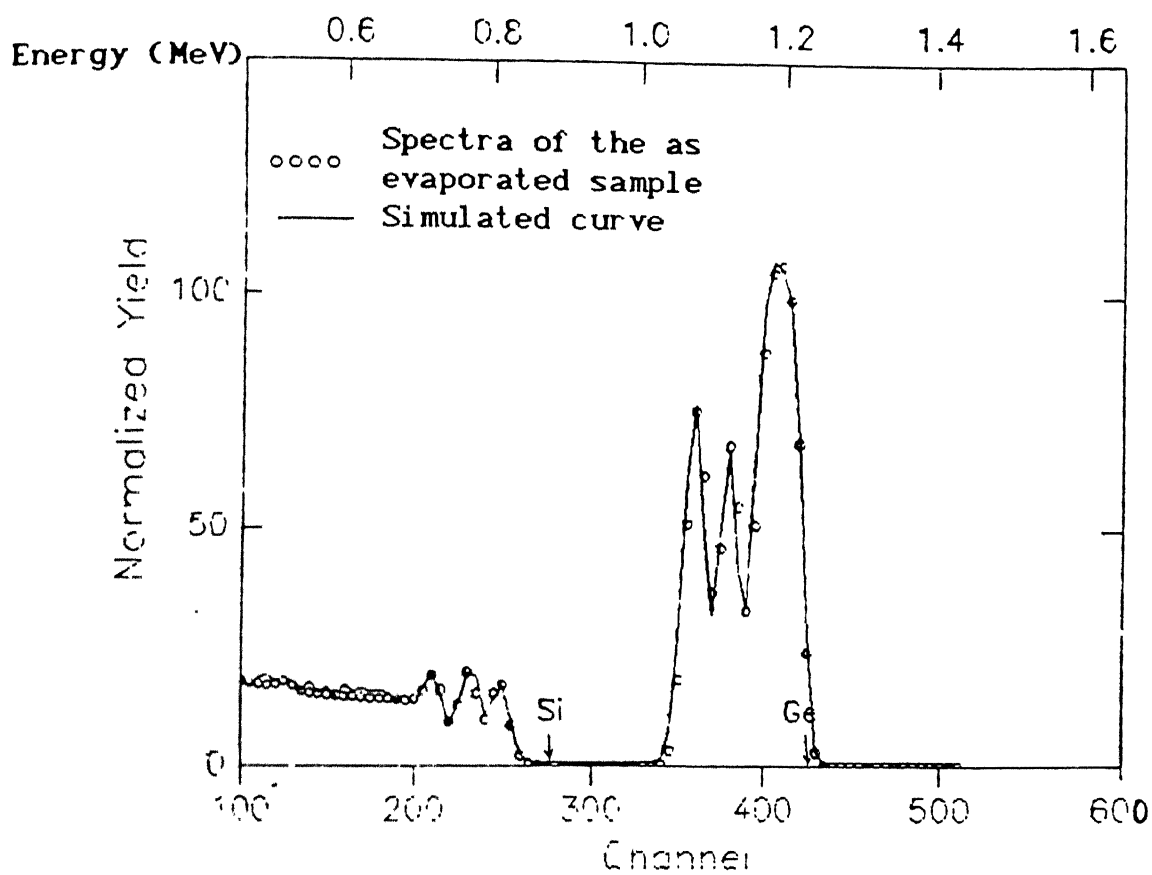


Fig. 3.2 RBS spectra of the as evaporated sample along with the simulated curve (6 - layer)

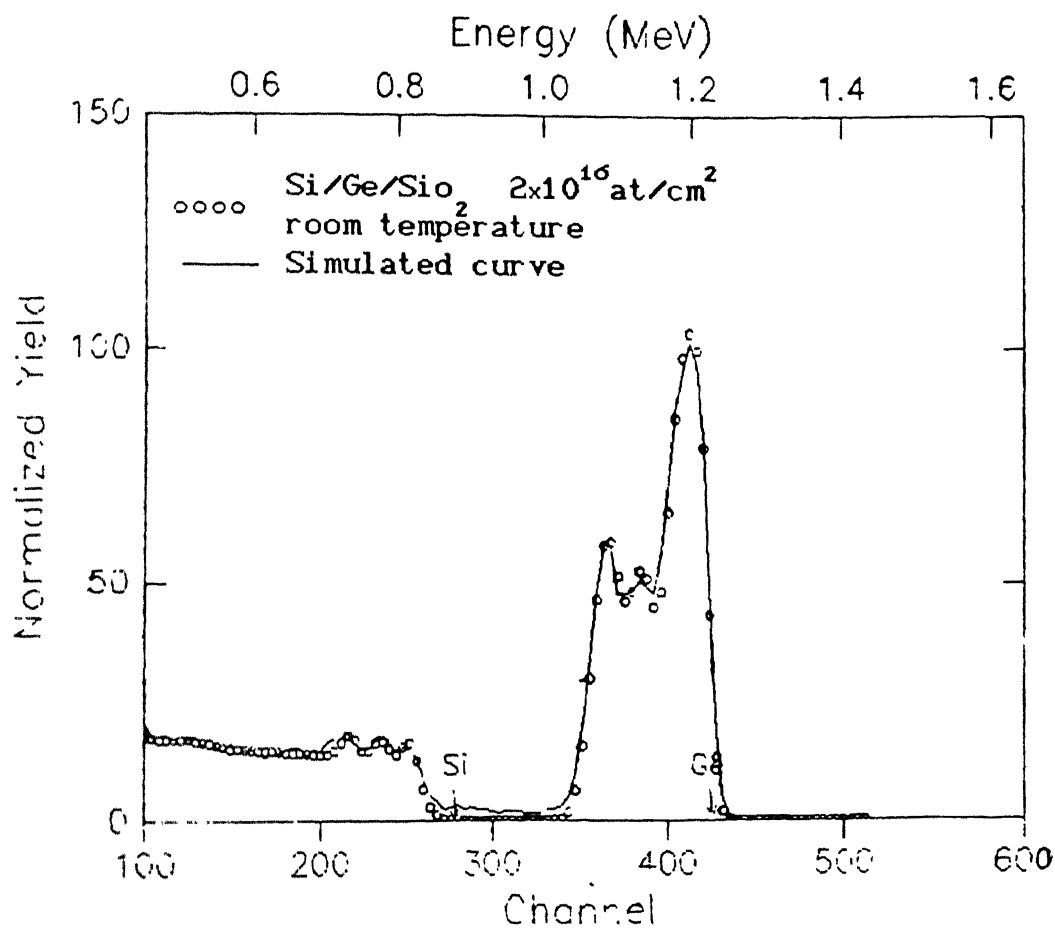


Fig. 3.4 RBS spectra for the sample irradiated with a dose of  $2 \times 10^{16} \text{ at/cm}^2$  at room temperature with the simulated curve



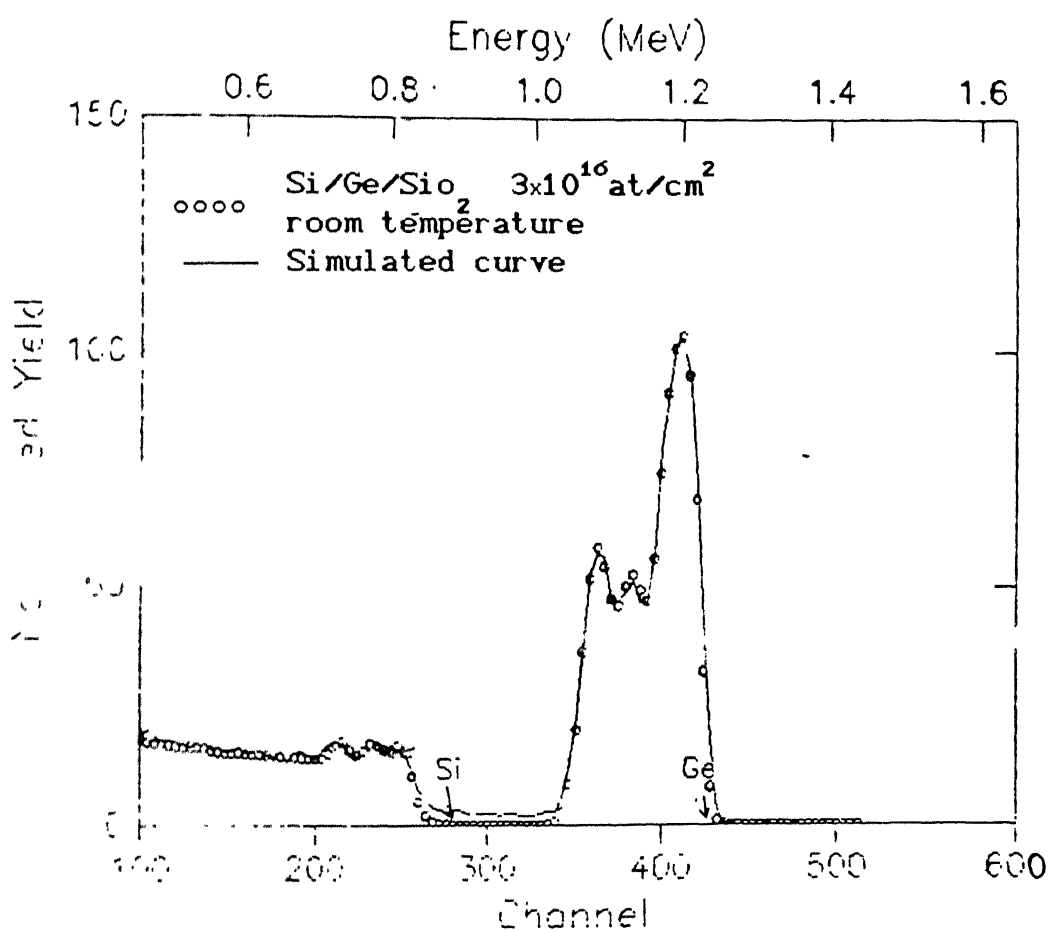


Fig. 3.5 RBS spectra for the sample irradiated with a dose of  $3 \times 10^{16}$  at/cm<sup>2</sup> at room temperature with the simulated curve

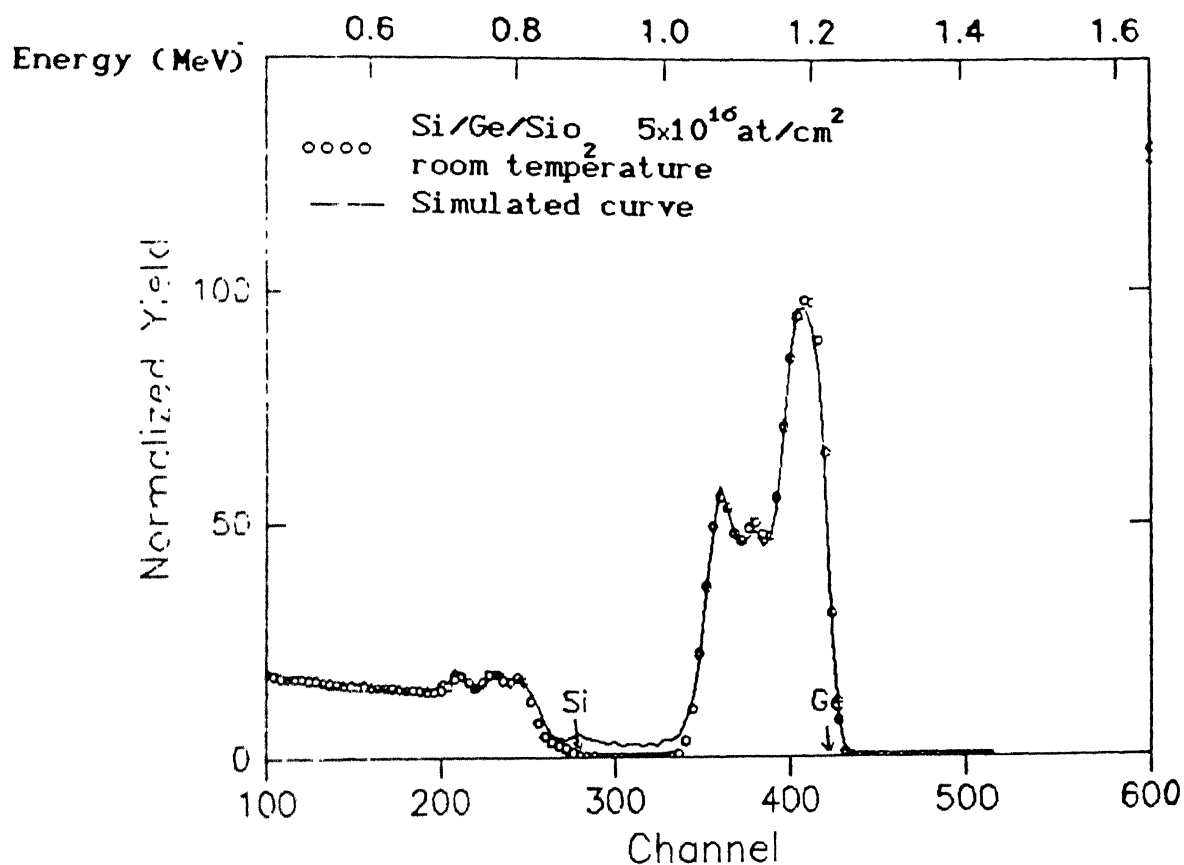


Fig. 3.6 RBS spectra for the sample irradiated with a dose of  $5 \times 10^{16} \text{ at/cm}^2$  at room temperature with the simulated curve

## TRIM 92

ION TYPE            Kr<sup>+</sup>  
 ION ENERGY       1 MeV  
 ION ANGLE          0 Deg.

Target layers                      Depth

Si & Ge layers of total thickness 2700 Å  
 on SiO<sub>2</sub> Substrate

IONS COMPLETED            3000

Range (Å)

Longitudinal                      6365

Lateral Projection                1402

Radial Projection                 2217

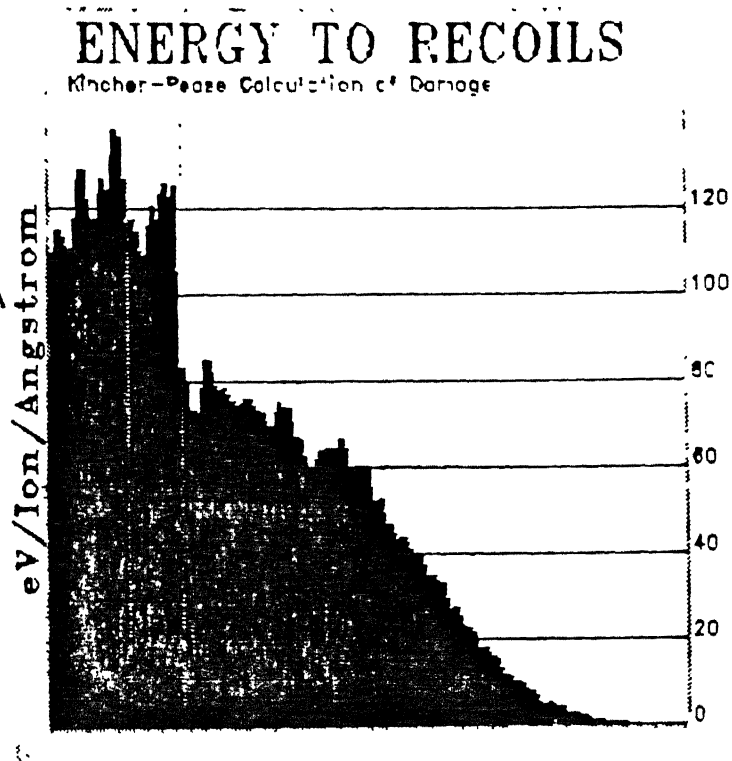


Fig. 3.7

TRIM calculations for the 6 layered samples showing the energy deposited by the incident ion

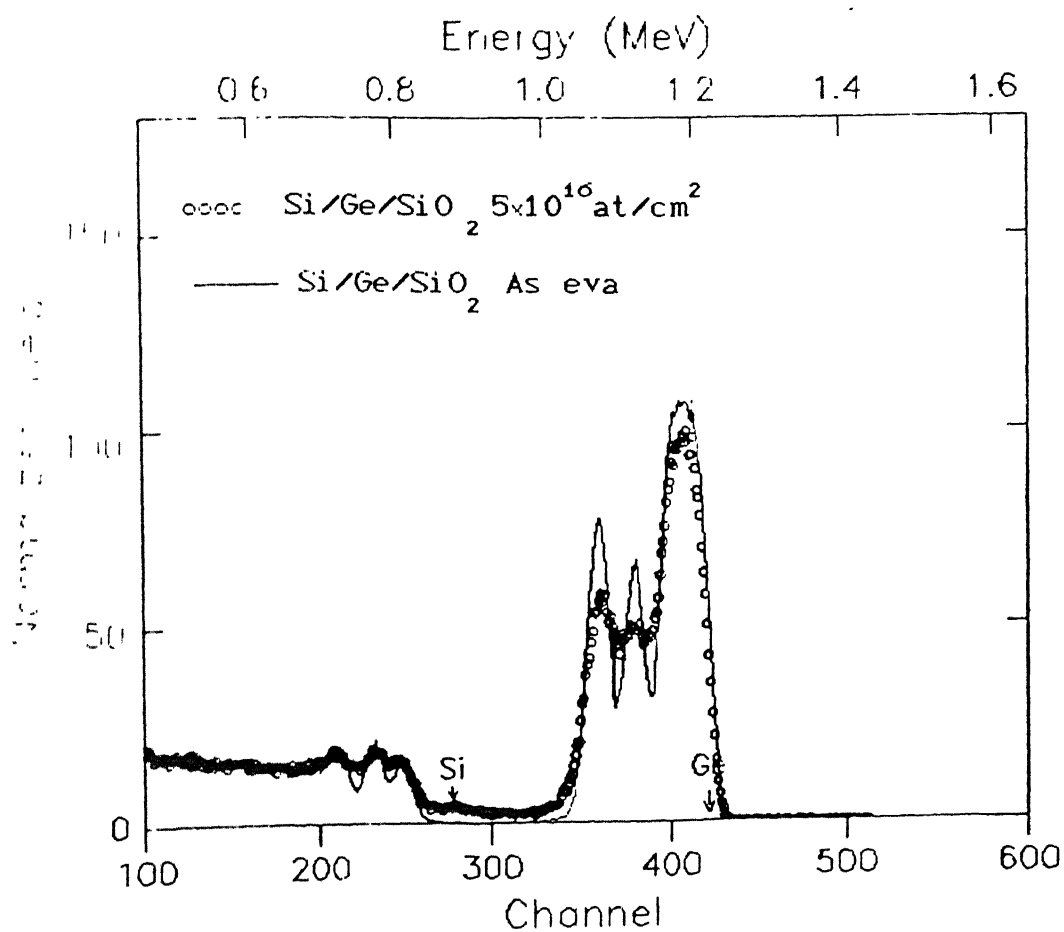


Fig. 3.8 Comparison of the RBS spectra to illustrate the progress in mixing with varying irradiating condition

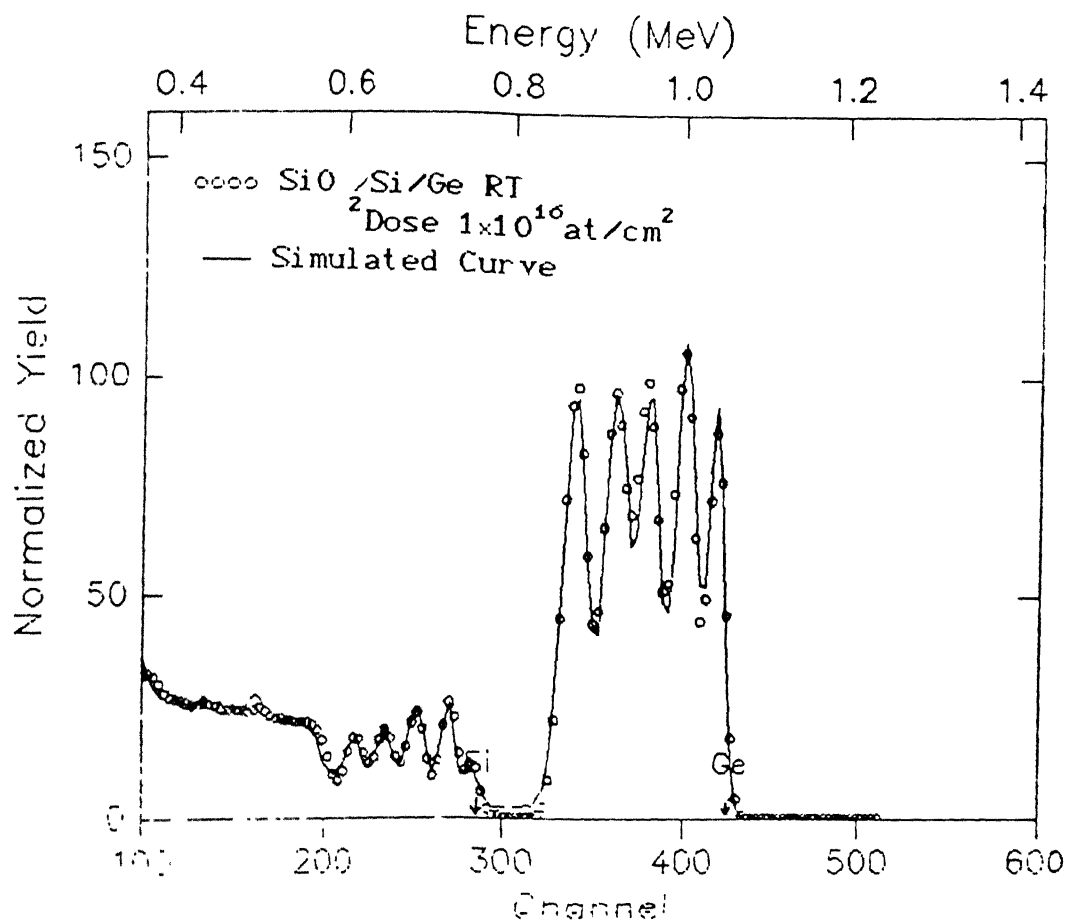


Fig. 3.10 RBS spectra for the sample irradiated with a dose of  $1 \times 10^{16}$  at/cm<sup>2</sup> at room temperature

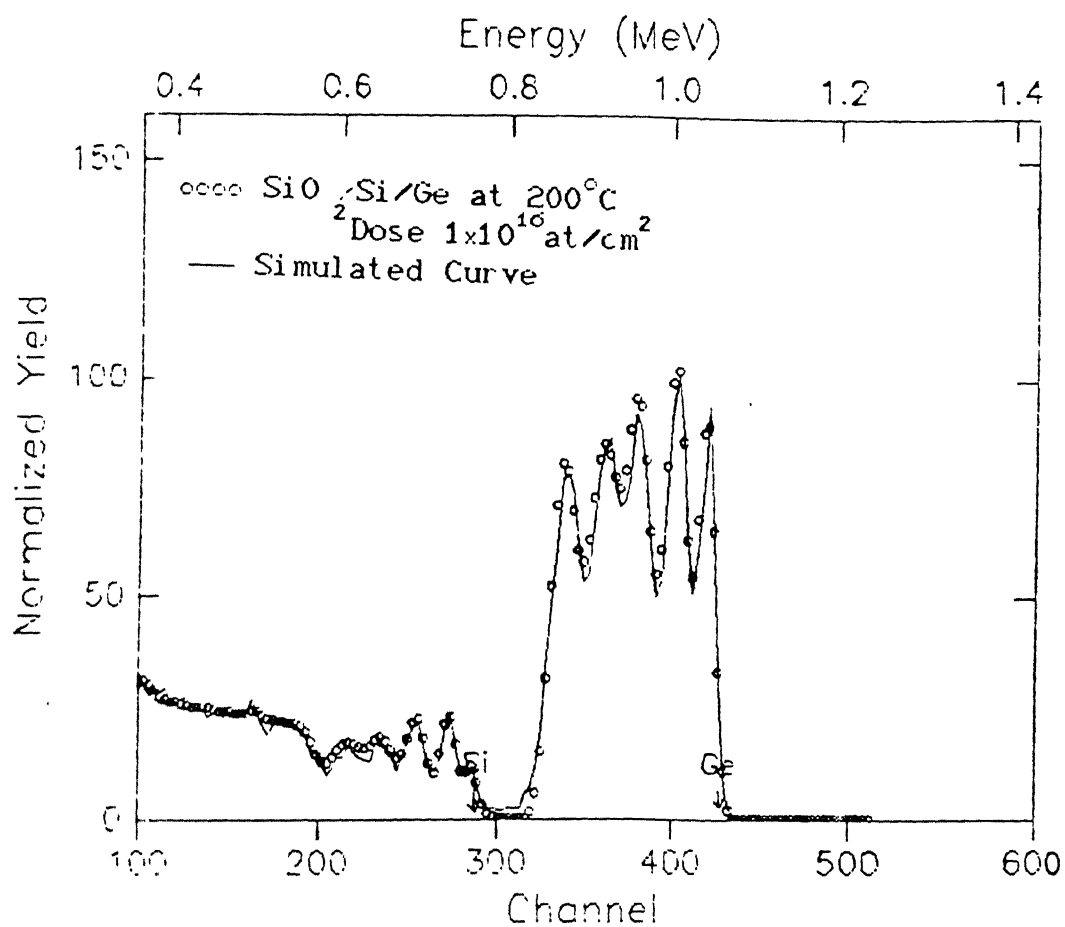


Fig. 3.11 RBS spectra for the sample irradiated with a dose of  $1 \times 10^{16} \text{ at/cm}^2$  at  $200^\circ\text{C}$  (High T)

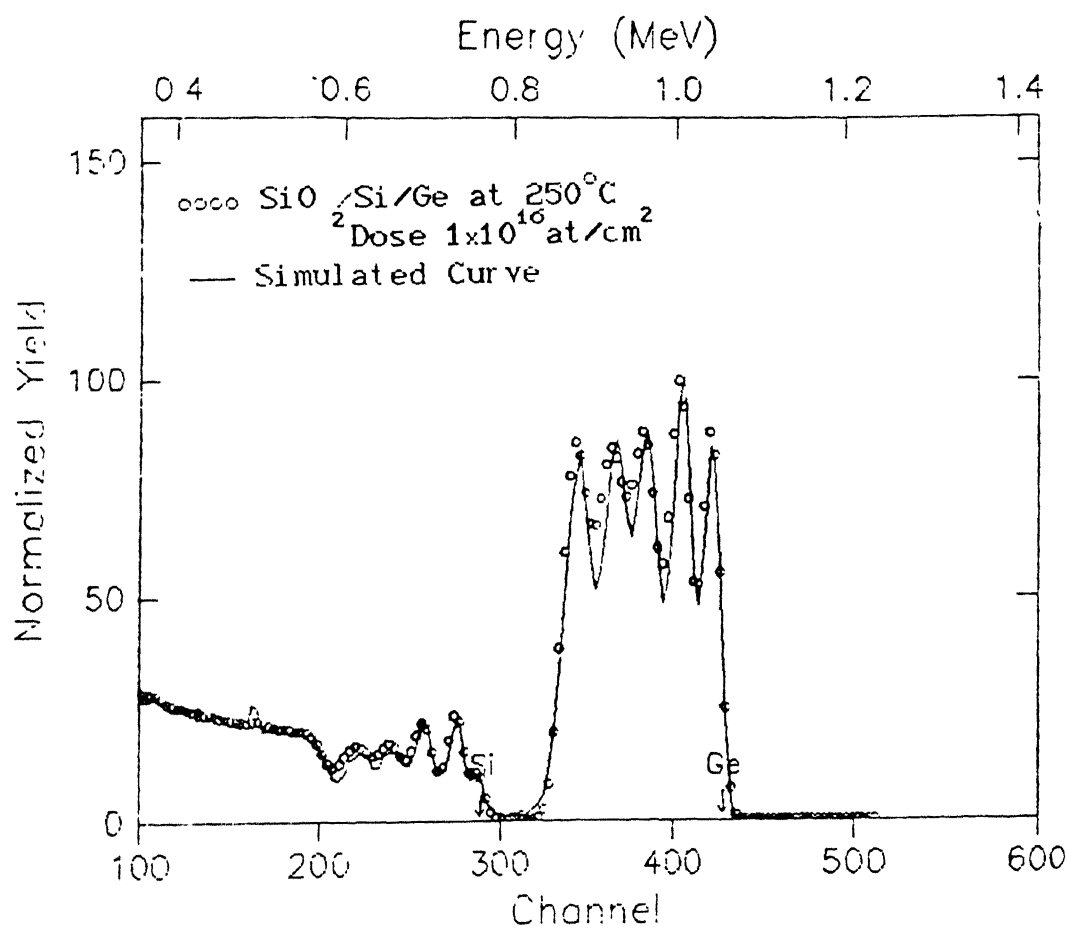


Fig. 3.12 RBS spectra for the sample irradiated with a dose of  $1 \times 10^{16}$  at/cm<sup>2</sup> at 250°C (High T)

# TRIM 92

ION TYPE Kr<sup>+</sup>  
 ION ENERGY 1 MeV  
 ION ANGLE 0 Deg.

Target layers Depth

Si & Ge layers of total thickness 3200 A  
 on SiO<sub>2</sub> Substrate

IONS COMPLETED 3000

Range (A)

Longitudinal 6091

Lateral Projection 1345

Radial Projection 2134

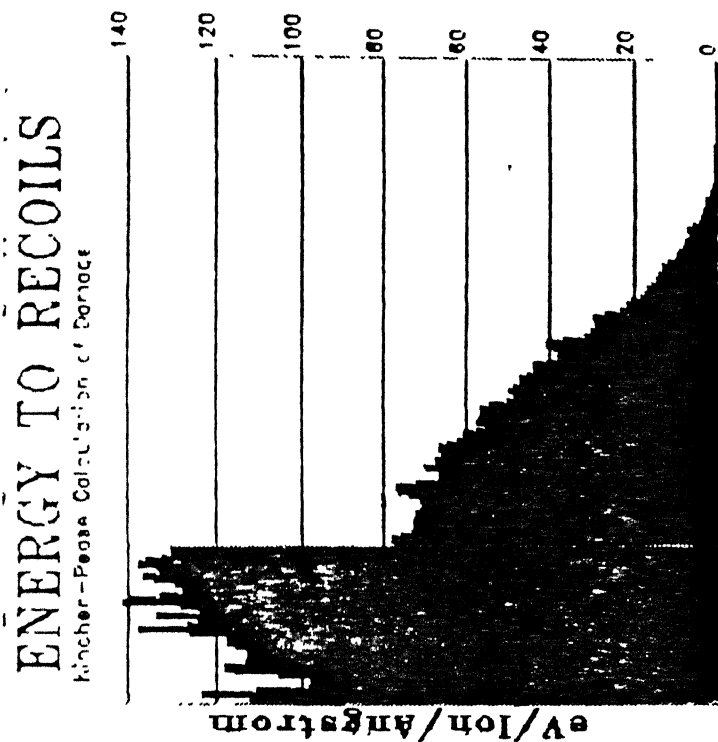


Fig. 3.13 TRIM calculations for the 10 layered samples showing the energy deposited by the incident ion



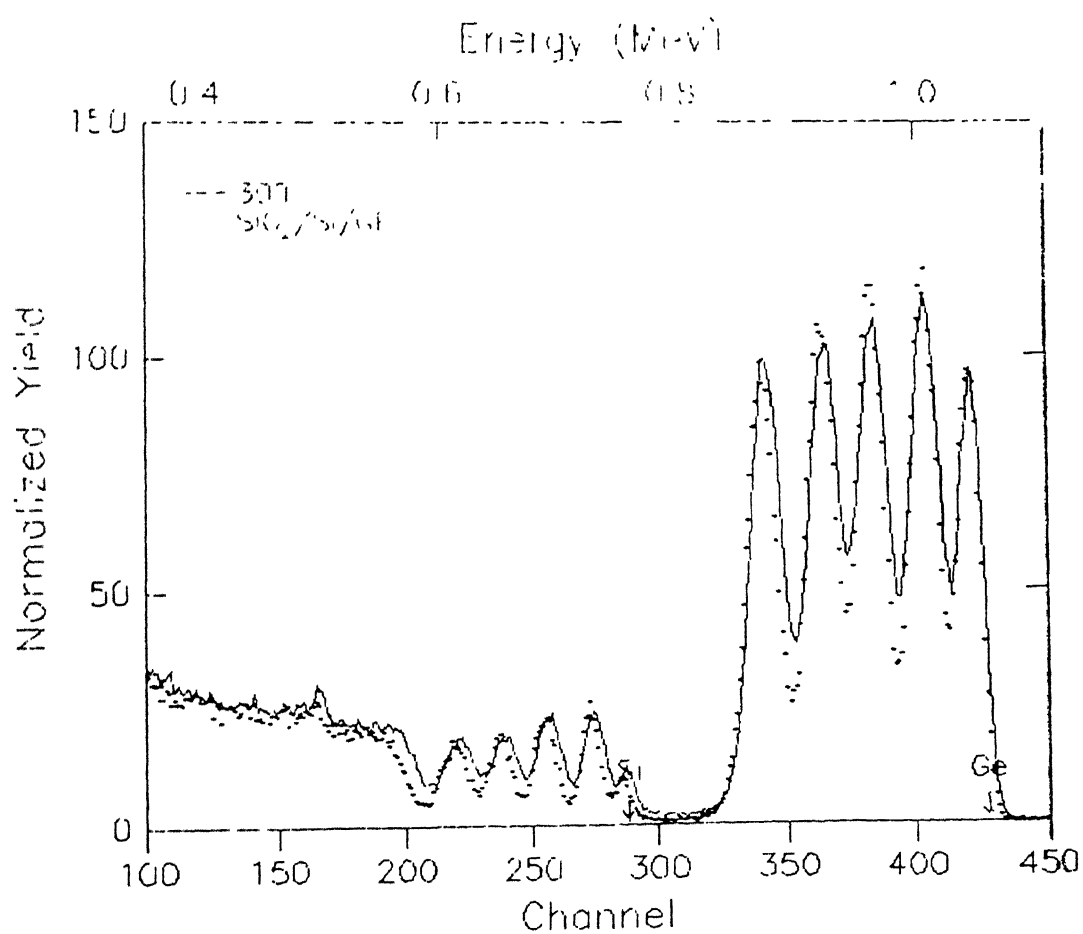


Fig .3.14 Comparison of the RBS spectra obtained from sample irradiated at 300°C with the as evaporated sample

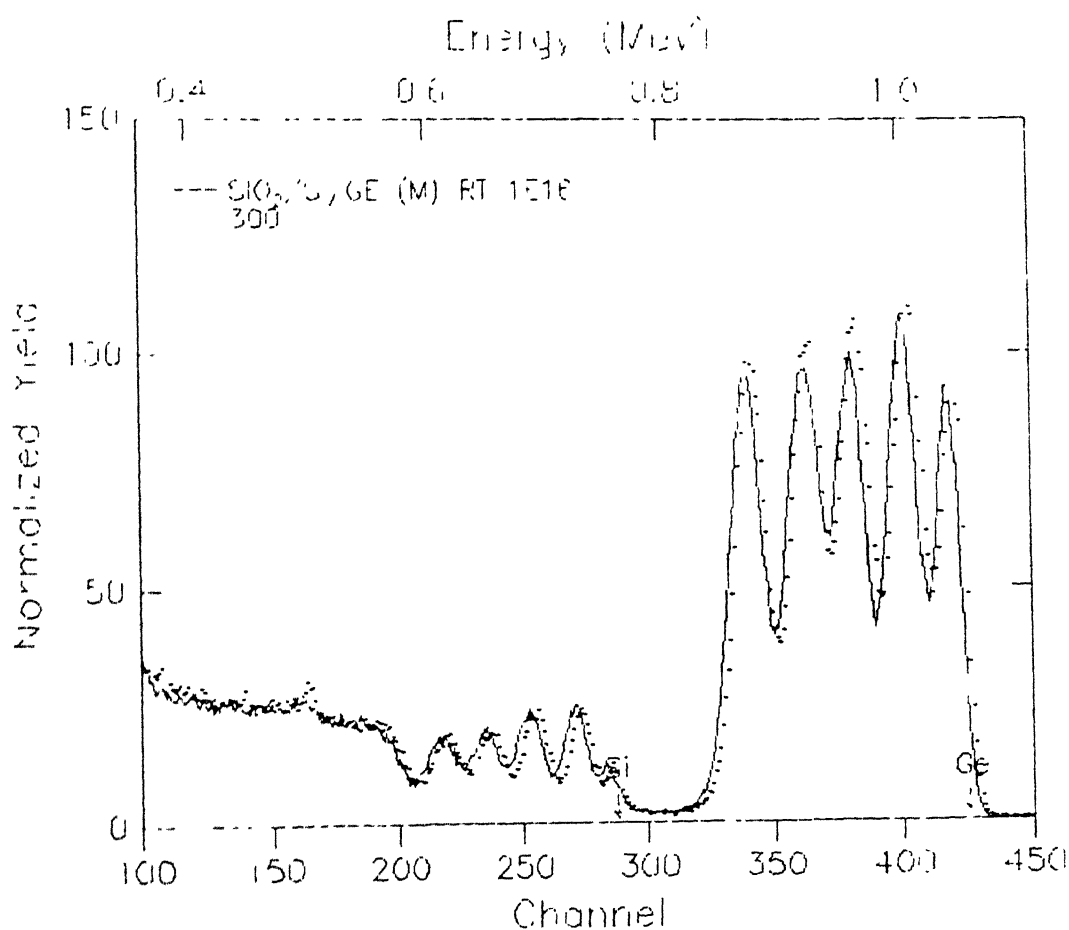


Fig .3.15 Comparison of the RBS spectra obtained from sample irradiated at 300° with the sample irradiated at room temperature

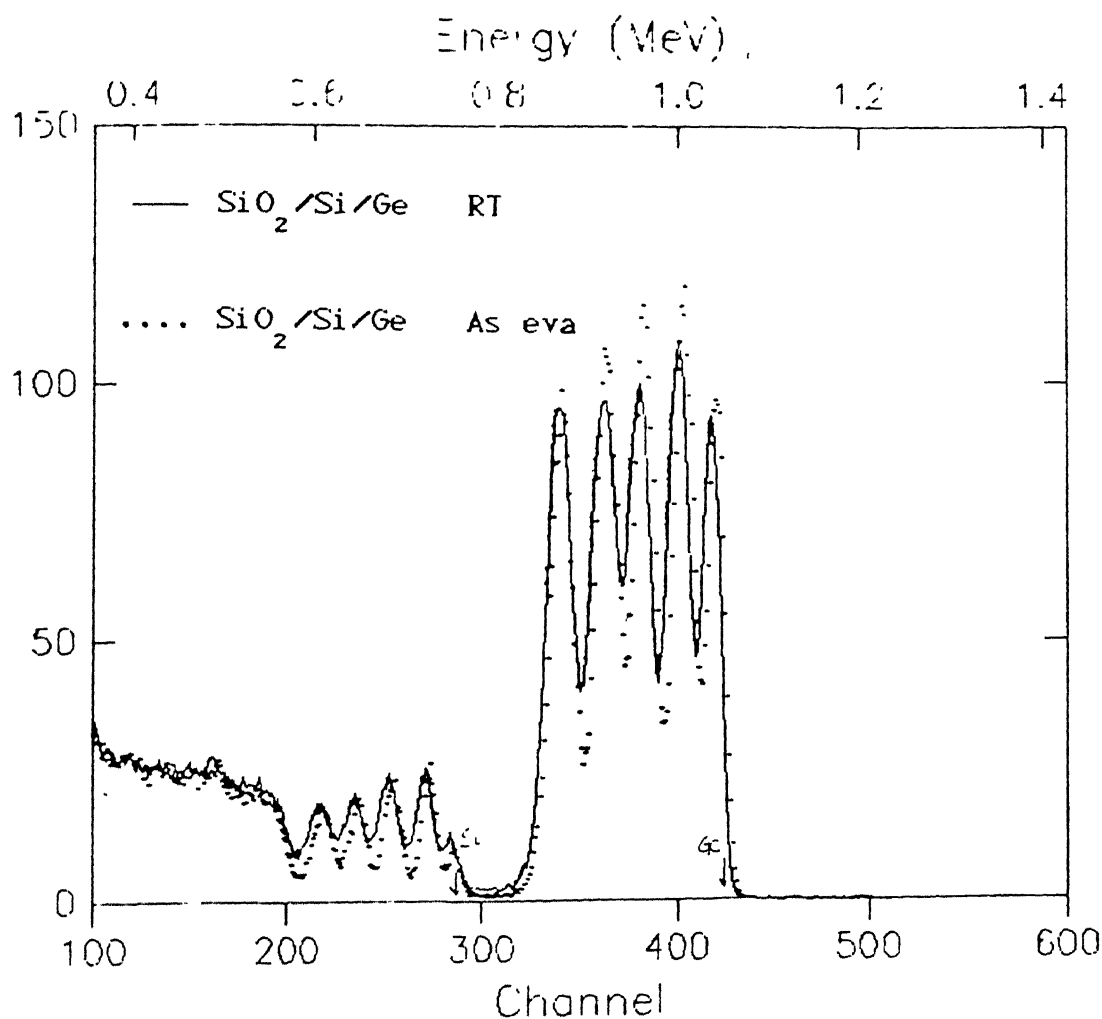


Fig. 3.16 Comparison of the RBS spectra to illustrate the progress in mixing with varying irradiation condition

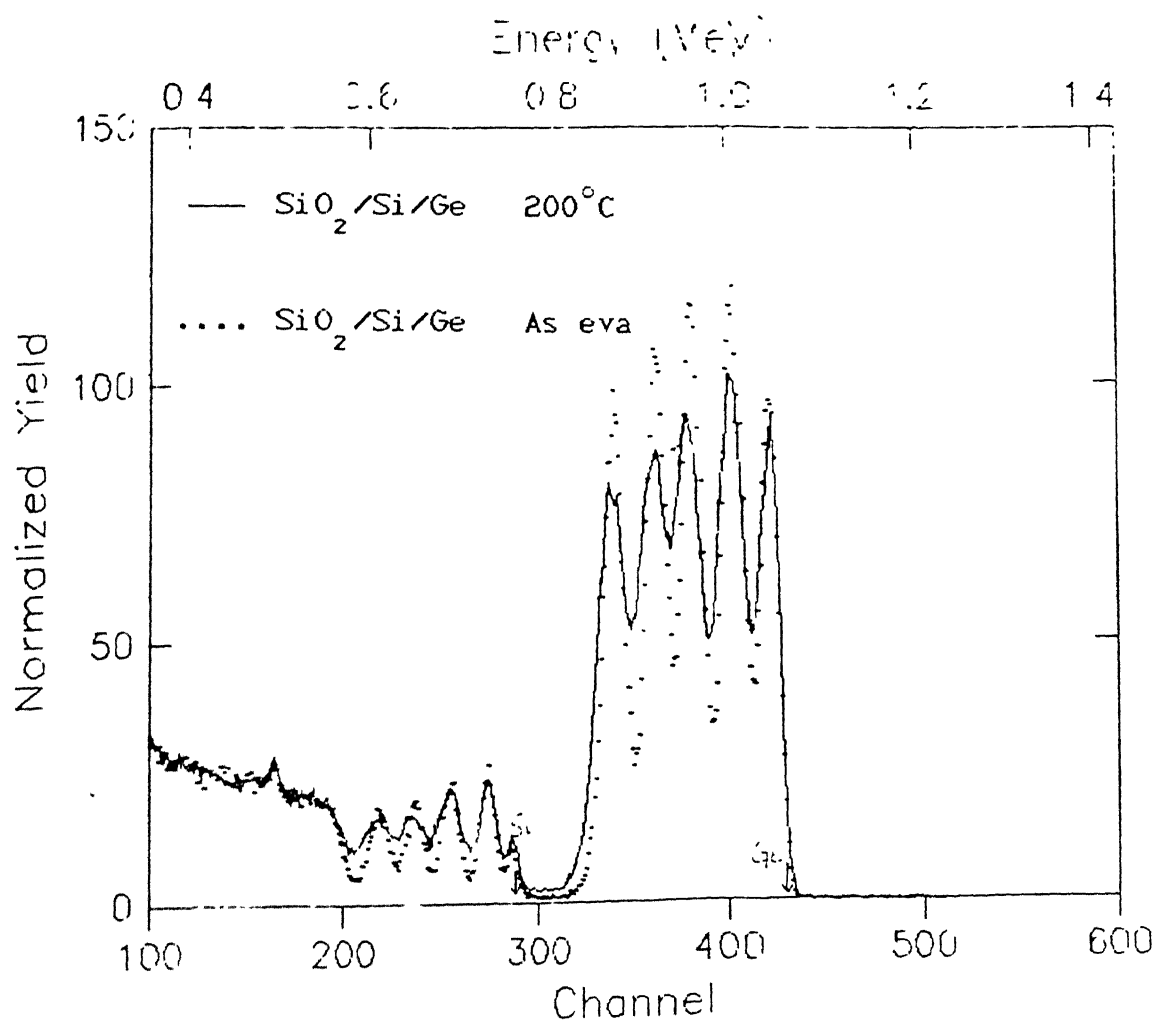


Fig. 3.17 Comparison of the RBS spectra to illustrate the progress in mixing with varying irradiation condition

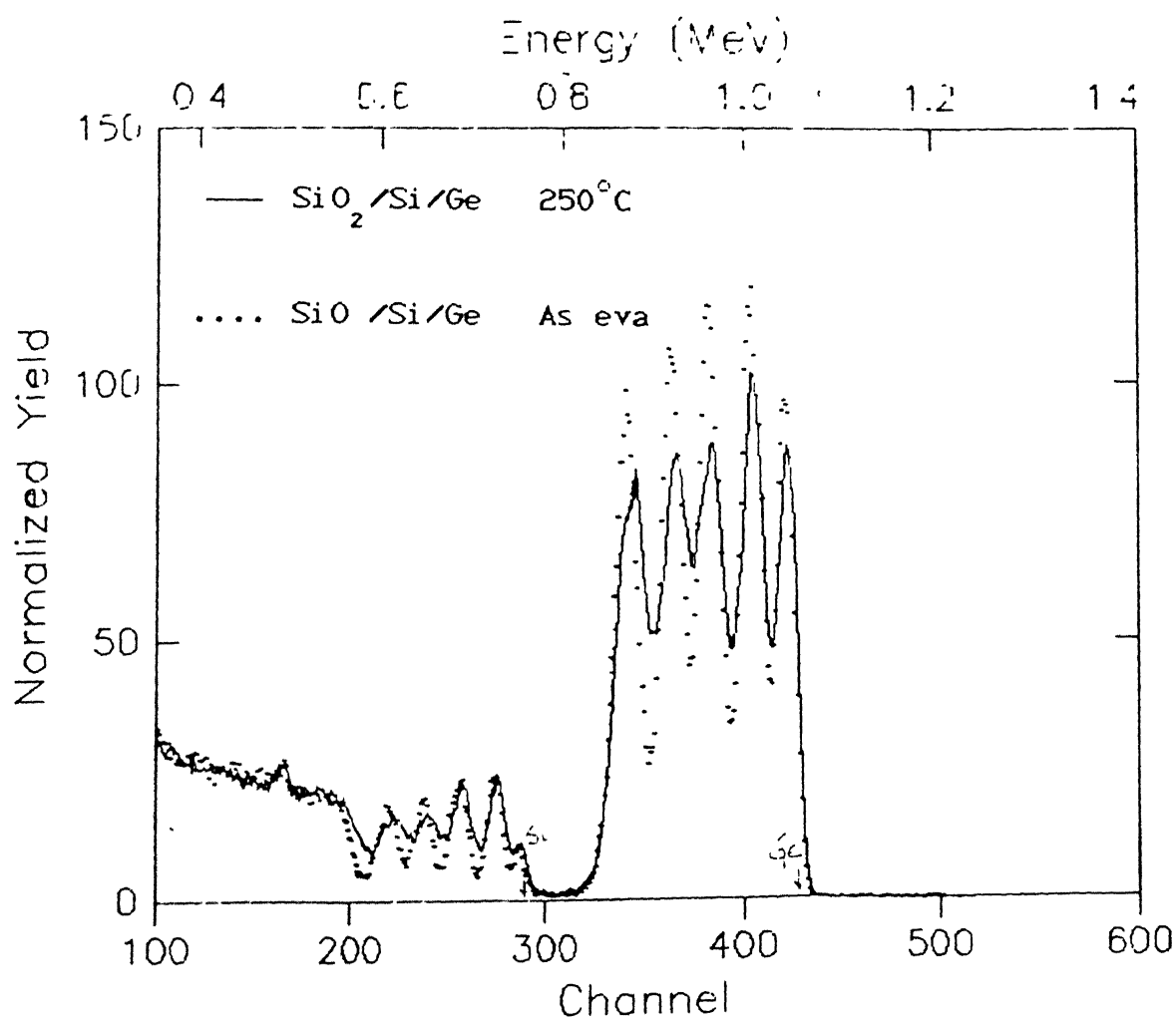


Fig. 3.18 Comparison of the RBS spectra to illustrate the progress in mixing with varying irradiating condition



Kr ( 84 amu )  
1 MeV

0 degrees

2500A 5.338  
2500A 2.321

Silicon

AtomColors=Kr/Kr

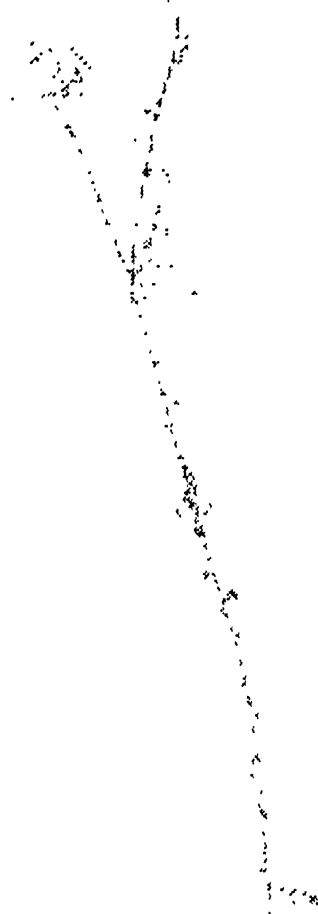
1

1

5977.0

ENERGY LOSS (eV) 1000 100000  
Ionization 37.97 27.44  
Vacancies 0.05 1.36  
Phonons 0.20 32.97

Calculation Complete ( 1 Ions )  
X-Y Longitudinal Projection



Silicon

Fig. 3.19a TRIM calculations showing the cascade formation along with the ion trajectory for Si/Ge bilayer with Ge on top

Calculation Complete ( 1 Ions )  
X-Y Longitudinal Project



Kr ( 84 amu )  
100 keV  
0 degrees  
ge 2500A 5.338  
Silicon 2500A 2.321

AtomColors=Kr/Kr

1

316A  
154A  
166A  
1515.0

Ionization 7.05 18.00  
Vacancies 0.11 2.98  
Interactions 0.30 71.57

Silicon

Fig. 3.19(b) TRIM calculations showing the cascade formation along with the ion trajectory for Si/Ge bilayer with Ge on top



Kr ( 84 amu)

1 MeV

0 degrees

Silicon 2500A 2.321  
ge 2500A 5.338

AtomColors=Kr/Kr

1

4908A  
255A  
728A  
9660.0

ENERGY LOSS ( eV ) 31.28 21.14  
Ionization 0 0.05 1.89  
Vacancies 0 0.18 45.46  
Ions 0 0 0

==== Calculation Complete ( 1 Ions ) ====

X-Y Longitudinal Projection



Fig. 3.20a TRIM calculations showing the cascade formation along with the ion trajectory for Si/Ge bilayer with Si on top



# Calculation Complete ( 1 Ions ) X-Y Longitudinal Projec

Kr ( 84 amu )  
100 keV  
0 degrees

Silicon 2500A 2.321  
Ge 2500A 5.338

AtonColors=Kr/Kr

1

551A  
266A  
282A  
919.0

(Energy Loss) in keV  
Ionization 10.63 41.15  
Vacancies 0.16 1.77  
Interactions 0.55 45.74

Silicon

0.5

Fig. 3.20(b) TRIM calculations showing the cascade formation along with the ion trajectory for Si/Ge bilayer with Si on top

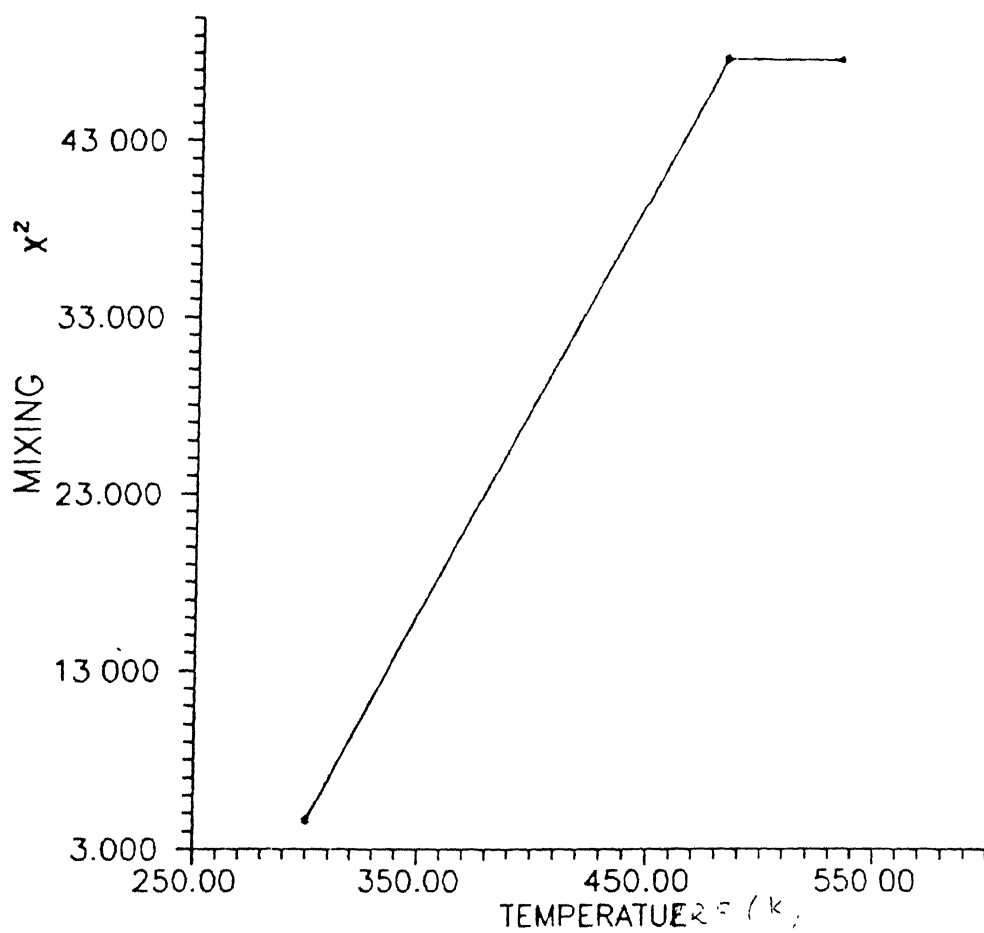


Fig. 3.21 Plot showing variation of the total mixed thickness with temperature

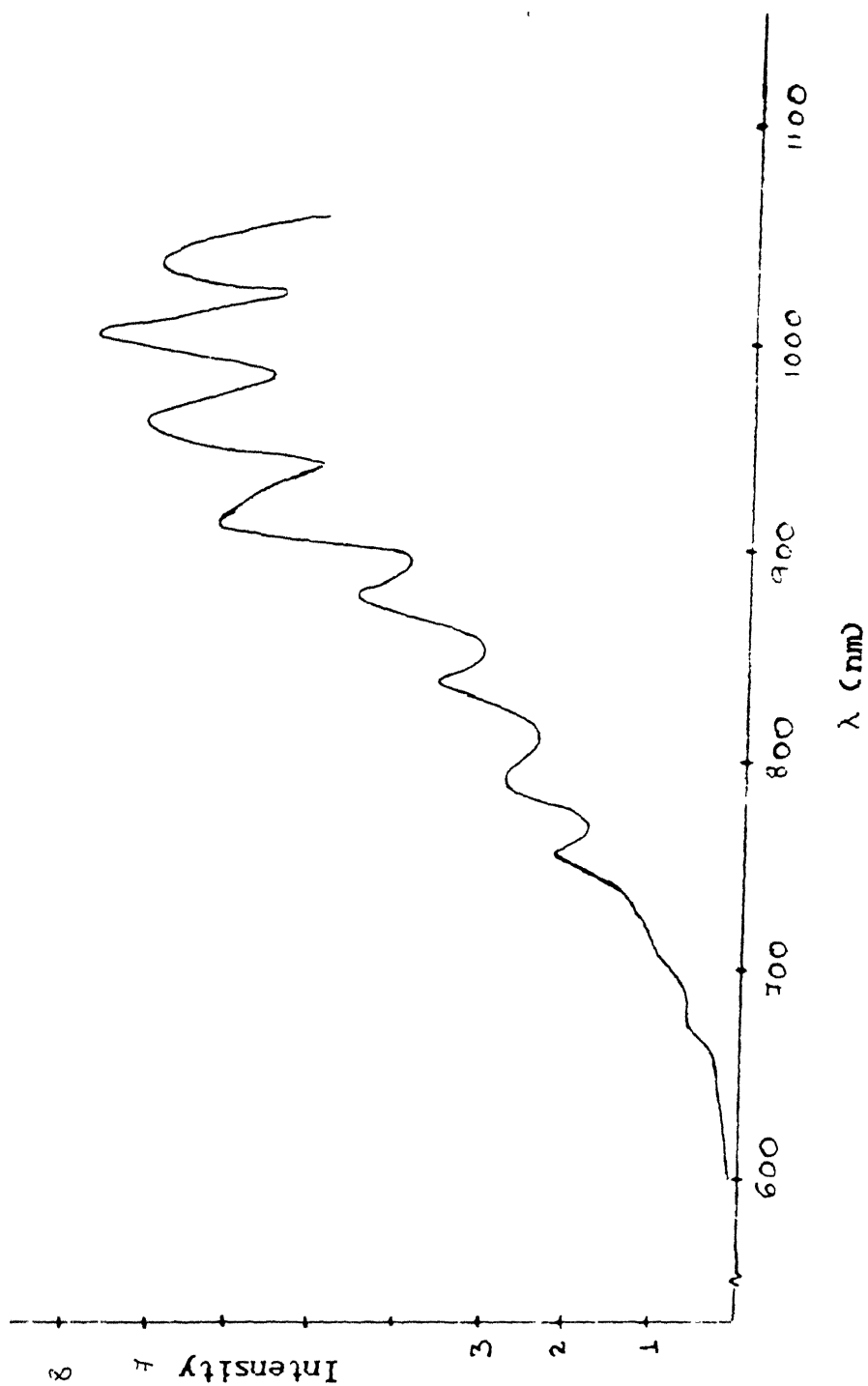


Fig. 3.22 Transmission spectra obtained during optical characterization of the samples ( for sample irradiated at 200°C )

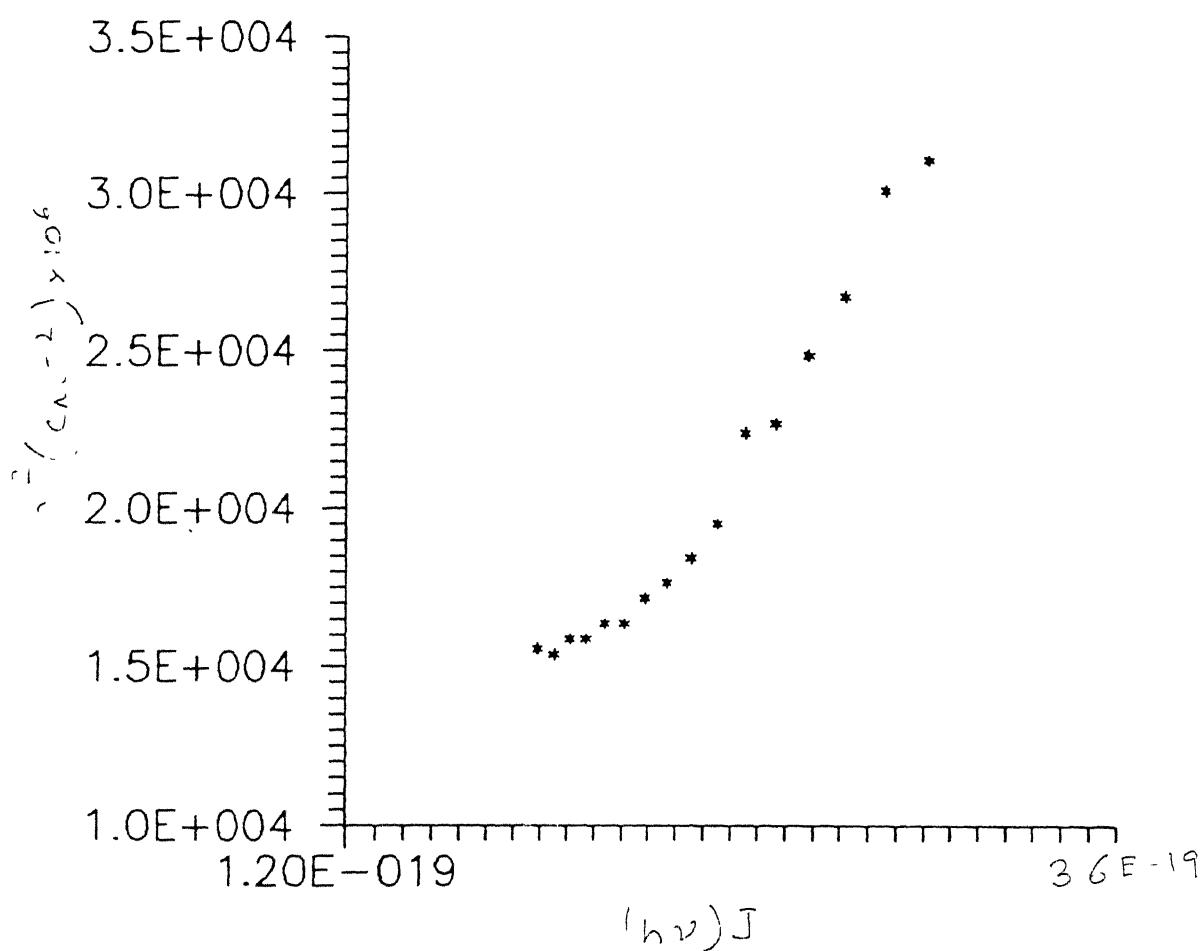


Fig. 3.23 Plot of  $\alpha^2$  vs  $(h\nu)$

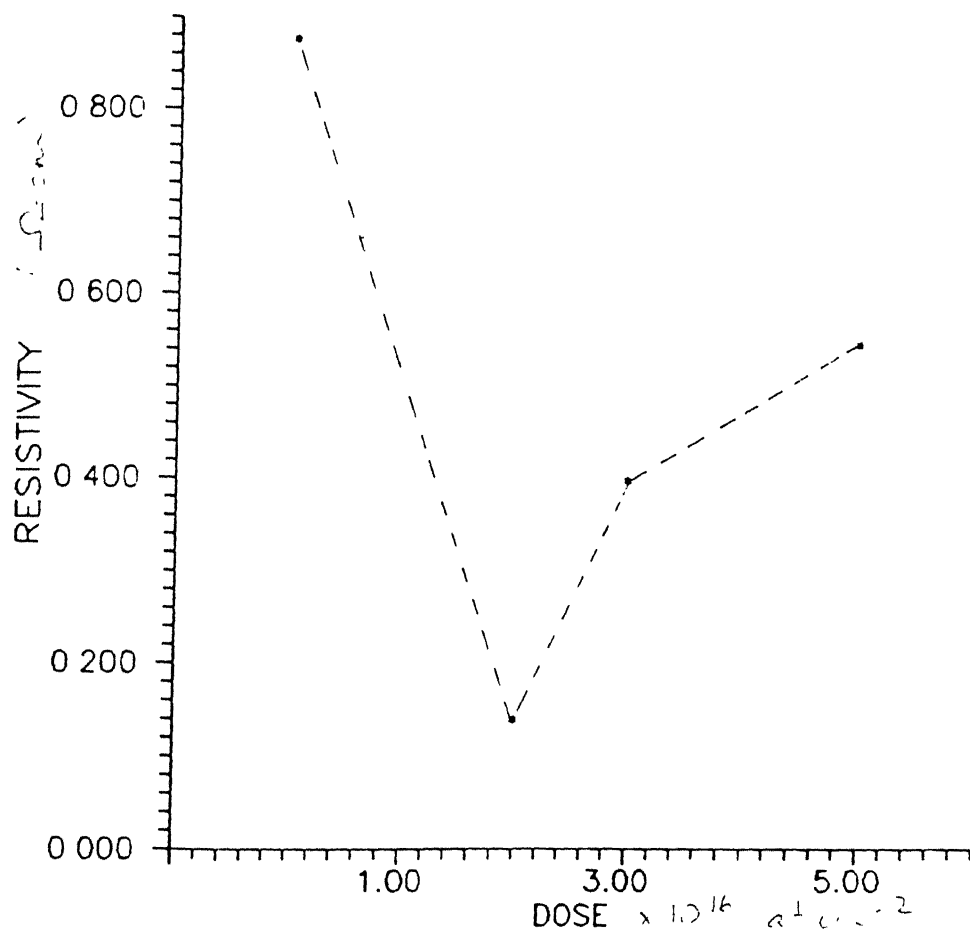


Fig. 3.24 Plot showing the variation of resistivity with dose

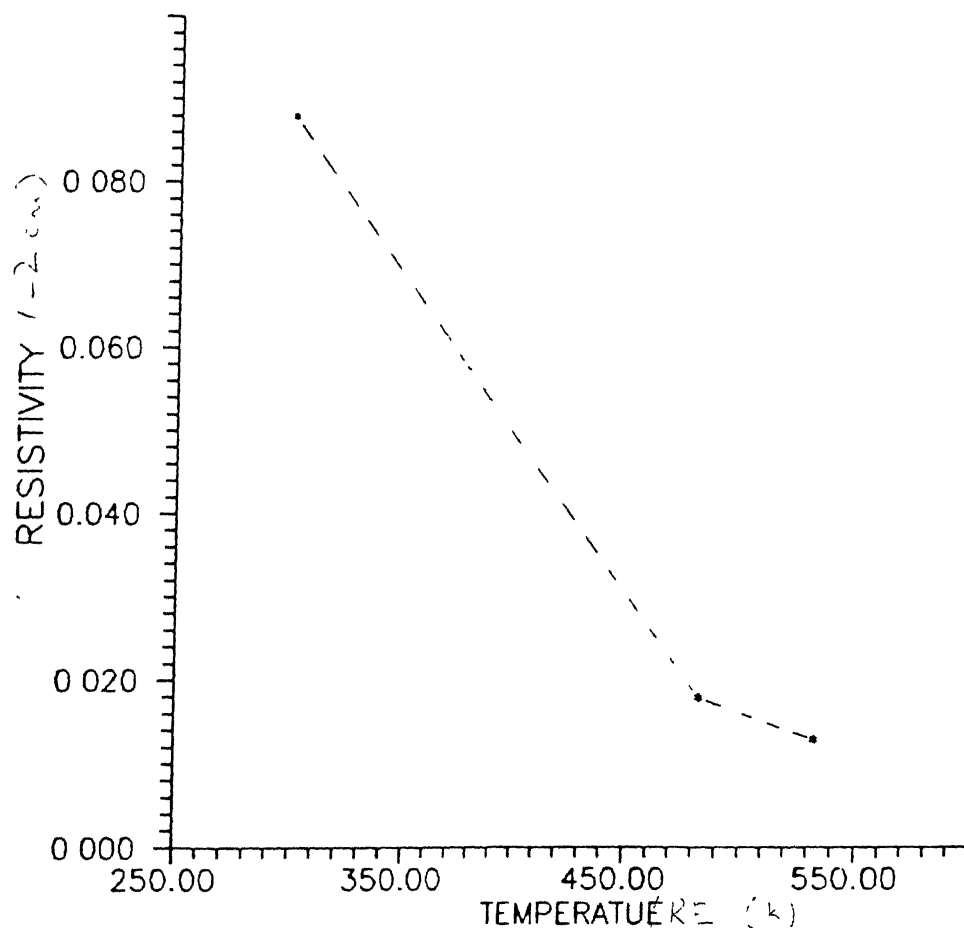


Fig. 3.25 Plot showing the variation of resistivity with substrate temperature during irradiation

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